The Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland

Proceedings of the Meetings held in Nineteen Hundred Thirteen at Syracuse and Albany, New York

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

PAGE

Officers and Council, 1913-1914 3

Report of Business Meetings 4

The Proceedings of the Meeting at Syracuse, April 18-19, 1913*

The Propriety and Value of the Study of Recent History, CARLTON HAYES 8

Discussion: 23
C. L. HEWITT
R. G. LEONARD
E. P. TANNER

Efficiency of the History Recitation, A. M. WOLFSON 25

Discussion: 36
E. W. LYTTLE
E. D. BOWLES
E. P. TANNER

The Proceedings of the Conference at Albany, November 29, 1913

How Shall Schools and Colleges Train for Citizenship? 40
JAMES LYNN BARNARD
JAMES SULLIVAN
CHARLES A. BEARD

Discussion: 58
JESSIE C. EVANS
EDGAR W. AMES
ARTHUR W. DUNN
GEORGE D. LUETSCHER
ADNA W. RISLEY
WM. A. WETZEL

Constitution of the Association 74

List of Members 75

*A paper on "Geography" by G. L. Burr is omitted because it has already appeared in the Proceedings of the New England Association of History Teachers, October, 1907; as is one on "Who Rules Germany" which appeared in the History Teachers Magazine, December, 1913.

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THE MINUTES OF SEVERAL BUSINESS MEETINGS

At the meeting held in Philadelphia, November 28, 1912, there was some discussion of the large percentage of failures in the College Board's examination in history. A committee consisting of A. M. Wolfson, E. W. Pahlow, and D. C. Knowlton, was appointed to report on the subject.

Owing to the doubt about holding the annual meeting in the spring of 1913, the officers listed on page 3 were elected for the year 1913-1914.

At the meeting held in Syracuse, New York, April 19, 1913, a Local Conference for the district in the vicinity of Syracuse was authorized and organized.

At the meeting held in Albany, New York, November 29, 1913, the reports of committees printed below were read. A new committee, consisting of Henry Johnson, Charles A. Beard, and Edgar Dawson, was appointed to report at the regular annual meeting in Trenton on the desirability and feasibility of collecting an exhibit of materials for use in the teaching of history, economics and government.

Article III. of the Constitution of the Association was amended to read as it is printed in this issue of the Proceedings. The amendment provides for the admission to the Councils of ex-presidents of the Association, and a representative from each of the local conferences.

A Local Conference for the vicinity of Albany, New York, was authorized and organized.

Appropriate resolutions of thanks were adopted at each of these meetings; in the first, extending the thanks of the Association to the University of Pennsylvania, in the second, to Syracuse University and the Central High School of Syracuse, and in the third, to the New York State Normal College and the New York State Department of Education.

PRELIMINARY REPORTS OF COMMITTEES

The Committee on College Entrance Examinations Board's Examinations in History and Civics

The Committee has held no formal meetings. The members have, however, discussed the subject of the preparation of questions informally with the members of the Committee, especially with the Chairman, Professor Fite. As a result of this discussion a supplementary question upon the candidate's preparation was appended to each paper in the examinations in June, 1913. The answers to this supplementary question seemed to prove the contention of a majority of the members of the Association that the subject of history has thus far not received proper recognition in the secondary schools, particularly in those which prepare for college. Most of these preparatory schools refuse to give to history and civics, which is a one-unit subject, time even approximately equal to that given to other one-unit subjects. The blame for the large number of failures in history should not be put upon the history teachers, until the teachers are given an equal opportunity with those in other subjects.

In the second place, the Committee feels that the teacher of history in the average secondary school is poorly prepared for the subject. The school administration usually employs the teacher because of his ability to handle some other subject, and then assigns history to him to fill up his program. So long as this is done, no matter what the character of the examination, the results will be poor. The Committee wishes to contend for a continuation of high standards in the examination, no matter how poor the result. The Committee holds that either the subject should not be offered at all in secondary schools, or that it should be taught by teachers at least as well prepared as those in the foreign languages, science,

mathematics and English; that it should not be taught at all, or that it should be given sufficient time for the adequate preparation of the pupil.

A. M. WOLFSON, *Chairman.*

The Committee on Geography and History

The Committee on Geography and History has been following up two recommendations made before the Association at the meeting in Syracuse last spring.

To meet the demands of the suggestion in regard to miniature maps the publishers of the McKinley Maps are preparing miniatures of their large maps of North America and of the Mediterranean World. Experiments will later be tried with other maps requested by teachers interested in the series. When the maps are ready the Committee will issue suggestions for their use.

The Committee has also begun to fulfil its suggestion of a Geographical Syllabus by the preparation of a Geographical Syllabus of Modern History. Various reasons combine to make this part of the work seem the best point of departure. To the formulation of the principles governing the selection of material has been added an analysis of the geography questions on the Harvard Entrance Examinations in History since 1877 as a basis of comparison. Analyses of the geography questions in the Entrance Examinations in history of other colleges and of the College Entrance Examination Board will also be made.

The chairman of the Committee gave a talk on the methods of the geography work in history before the November meeting of the History Section of the High School Teachers Association of New York City. Letters and personal suggestions from people interested at that time encourage us in the hope that our work will be of practical benefit.

A. S. BEATMAN, *Chairman.*

The Committee on the Preparation of Teachers of History

The Committee proposes, before the spring meeting is held, to address all the history departments in the colleges and universities within our territory, asking the following questions:

1. Whether in regular undergraduate work instruction is given or offered in methods of teaching the subject of history in secondary schools.

2. Whether such work is offered in connection with the courses in graduate schools.

3. Whether such instruction is offered in summer school courses.

4. If no such instruction is now offered would the history departments be at all genial toward the suggestion that it be included, provided that it can be shown to be worth while.

5. If a pamphlet were prepared by the Association showing the requirements of those intending to become history teachers by the city and town school boards within our territory, would the history departments use such information for the benefit of history students?

WILLIAM FAIRLEY, *Chairman.*

The Committee on the Teaching of Economics

Mr. A. L. Pugh, chairman of this Committee, was unable to get his report to the Secretary in time for it to appear in this volume.

THE PROPRIETY AND VALUE OF THE STUDY OF RECENT HISTORY

CARLTON HAYES
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

What I have to say this afternoon is at once an apology and a plea for the painstaking study of recent events and for the presentation in our class rooms of the results of our research. I shall insist first upon the propriety of recent history,—that is to say, that the scholarly investigation of social and political phenomena of the last two or three decades is within the legitimate province of professional historians. In the second place, I shall emphasize the value of teaching recent history, especially the value accruing to students. In other words, my general thesis is that no important theoretic objection can reasonably be urged against this study, and for its teaching every practical consideration bespeaks the need.

With some hesitation I come before you, and with some fear that limitations of time and place will not enable me to make my position perfectly clear. I appreciate full well that the professed historian—he that searches original documents or rewrites them or expounds them—is already harassed almost to the death by demands for recognition from the anthropologist or psychologist or sociologist, as well as from him whose peculiar interest in the interpretation of history is rather narrowly intellectual or religious or economic or social or political. To a group of scholars already exhausted by over-much discussion of the simple question—What is History?—I venture to come and beg of them that they number within the orthodox fold such of us as deal chiefly with events of recent times.

Not only as a postulant do I present myself, but as an apologist, for, after all, from one standpoint, I have nothing particularly new or startling to offer. Two years ago the Committee of Five of the

American Historical Association formally recommended that more time be allowed in the secondary school curriculum for modern history, because, as they said, "Many teachers have come to feel strongly that a study of the past should distinctly help in understanding the present; they believe that for a knowledge of present social and political conditions there is need of a reasonable familiarity with the great changes of the past century, and that history courses should be so arranged as to allow ample opportunity for the study of the development and progress of modern Europe."* And I am well aware that the history teachers in secondary schools even more than in colleges are tending in increasing numbers to share the Committee's point of view and to reinforce the logic of the report with practical experiments. Recent history is now actually taught, and taught widely. And so I shall doubtless be defending this afternoon what some of you are already doing. It may be that I shall be carrying coals to Newcastle.

Quite aware of these drawbacks to my subject, I have nevertheless persisted in a desire to make a few observations on the propriety and value of the study of recent history, not because *I* think them in every case supremely needful nor because I would raise old-fashioned, footless queries as to the true scope and content of history, but for the simple reason that my conception of the historians' guild is one in which the injunction holds good, "Confirm thy brethren."

At the very outset, it is expedient that we agree on a definition of terms. Precisely what is meant by the words "recent history"? Now, obviously, "history" is broad enough to include research and study and presentation of anything of the past or any part of the past. But what distinguishes real history from any other handling of past events is the peculiar quality of mind or character which historical labor presupposes. That character—that essential quality of the historian's mental equipment—is a critical spirit, a fastidious sense which enables a man to weigh evidence, to compare and contrast, not to exaggerate this unduly, or underestimate that, but to act with reason, with discernment, with a mind free from par-

* The Study of History in Secondary Schools, Report of the Committee of Five (1911), p. 53.

tiality and prejudices, and to draw conclusions which are as relatively true as human nature may attain. Any person who is endowed with such qualities or has formed such a character is historically-minded, and any one who applies such an endowment to the construction of studies is an historian, whether he works among the tombs of the valley of the Nile or in the rural markets of a mediæval world or in agnostic books of a Voltaire or a Diderot or in the presence of soldiers and photographers of the last siege of Adrianople. With any of these topics the historian may legitimately concern himself, provided always—and this condition cannot be too rigorously emphasized—that he employs his critical faculty.

In a sense the word "recent" is a serious misnomer. Now that we have all read Sir Charles Lyell's *Antiquity of Man* or Charles Darwin's *Descent of Man* or some work inspired by them, we begin to understand that man in one form or another has existed upon this globe hundreds of thousands of years and that the earth preceded man in existence by thousands of centuries. Yet written documents or sources on which the historian must rely reach back but to a paltry six thousand years. The whole recorded history of our species, which our colleagues have conventionally styled ancient or mediæval or modern, is but of yesterday in the vast epic of creation. It is natural for us to exclaim with Emerson, "In the eternity of nature how recent our antiquities appear." But I do not purpose to use the word "recent" in a geological sense. It might be unfair and I have no temptation to quibble. By "recent" I mean actual events of the past few years—the last generation, let us say. It is in behalf of the direction of some of our critical investigation toward the achievements of the last generation that I make this plea. Mark well that it is a plea for the study and teaching of recent history, not for the conduct of a class in mere "current topics." The latter may be informing, but it is not history, because it is not linked up with other and earlier doings of man and because it does not necessarily encourage the exercise of the essential faculty of historical-mindedness, what I have repeatedly termed the critical spirit. Not only the word "recent" but the word "history" must be stressed. And, furthermore, let it be understood firmly and definitely by every one that a defense of recent

history should not be construed as an attack direct or by implication upon ancient or mediæval or any other kind of history. Experience in the recent field will speedily convince the scholar that he must continually utilize the produce of workers in other, and, mayhap, distant fields. For the modern historian there is no more isolation of time than of place.

Now let us approach the subject of *propriety*. Suppose we ask ourselves whether recent history is real history—whether it is as proper and as becoming to staid historians to study the Dreyfus case or the Portuguese Revolution or the Lloyd George Budget or the Russo-Japanese War as to discuss the Benedictine Rule or the Italian Expedition of Charles the Eighth or the Puritan Revolution or to determine the main achievements of the twelfth dynasty of Egyptian kings. At least three considerations may make us hesitate before answering the question in the affirmative. (1) There is undoubtedly a feeling that we do not possess the sources of information about recent times as comfortably as we control those relating to more distant days. We are told, especially by certain men who emphasize the scientific character of history, that the sources and methods of recent history are defective. (2) It is charged that to study, certainly to write, recent history is bound to savor of journalism and is surely a departure from the correct standards of classical historians. (3) It has been repeatedly affirmed—this is, after all, to my way of thinking, the chief difficulty—that the writer is more likely to be biased, and therefore to lose proper perspective, in dealing with the recent past than in treating of the distant past. Anything that gives free rein to bias or prejudice deserves speedy condemnation, for bias is inimical to truth, and truth is the soul of history. On each one of these three considerations I would invite your reflection. The propriety of recent history is at stake.

In respect of the methods of recent history, I must confess my inability to understand why they can not be identical in spirit with those of other varieties of history. Some fault might be found with ancient history or even with that of the middle ages on the ground that the paucity of primary sources militates against the highest type of historical reconstruction. But with the invention of printing at the close of the fifteenth century historical material

begins to expand in manner almost as bewildering as a geometrical progression. The century which left the largest record of itself is the nineteenth—the century in which the Industrial Revolution put steam to the printing presses and daily girdled the globe with newspapers—the century in which democracy budded and bloomed, and incidentally strewed everywhere, like pollen, records of parliamentary debates and statutes and commission reports, until, as Proudhon said, the age will be dubbed by geologists of the millennium as the *papyraceous* age. Indeed, one is sometimes tempted to think that the mass of sources of all kinds for the times of Bismarck, Disraeli, Gambetta, Lloyd George, and Roosevelt equals in bulk all that we have for the history of the western world before their day. Just call to mind the newspapers, pamphlets, reviews, parliamentary and congressional records, speeches, blue-books, reports, census returns. In literature, moreover, men write in the nineteenth century with a cogency and a wealth of intimate detail and a large grasp on the various political, social, economic, religious and intellectual interests of humanity which we find only in part or miss altogether in what comes down to us from the earlier centuries.

To these sweeping generalizations about the scope and bulk of source material for recent history, one exception must be made. The history of recent diplomacy and international politics cannot be fully treated until the secrets of foreign chanceries are divulged, and many archives, now closed, are opened. But even this limitation is possibly more apparent than real. It should be borne in mind that diplomacy, like much else, has been revolutionized by democracy and the telegraph, and that, regardless of our inability to follow at times the minutiæ of the construction of a government's foreign policy, we can usually note external results of that policy. Thus, while we may not know the exact terms and conditions of the Triple Alliance, we may observe with genuine profit the public attitude of Austria or Germany or Italy toward the Balkan situation.

With this one qualification, it may be affirmed that the difficulty in applying sound historical method to recent history is no longer to find apt and varied information on the conditions and trend of events, but rather to avoid being overwhelmed by that which presses

in from all sides. And sometimes the very historian who has been convinced that there is the greatest wealth of source material for the history of our own times will spurn or ignore it on the ground that there is too much or that it is not sifted and organized. With this attitude of mind, I have little sympathy, because, after all, what is the historian's first business if it is not to sift and organize source-material, and why should the amount of work stagger the conscientious, enthusiastic searcher after truth? Mere lack of organization of sources should not content us with knowing more about Charlemagne than about Bismarck. It is a demonstrable fact that we *can* know more about Bismarck than about Charlemagne, only the lazy man will refuse to carry the demonstration to its logical end. As soon as the interest in recent history is recognized as thoroughly legitimate, historians will find this great new field in which to pitch their tents and to apply their most approved methods of tillage.

We come now to the real crux of the matter of propriety—the questions of novelty and prospective. Is it not a dangerous innovation to treat recent events as historical? Have not the most reputable historians established an accurate perspective in proportion as they have refrained from dealing with their own times?

In this appeal to authority and example, curiously enough the advocates of recent history will find quite as many supporters as will their opponents. In fact it will be discovered that reputable historians can fairly easily be divided into two classes, first, those who have studied and written of their own times, and second, those who have investigated and reported on times anterior to their own, and that the names in the former class are quite as impressive as those in the latter. The traditional founder of our subject, Father Herodotus himself, owes his reputation not to the earlier portions of his work, which have suffered severe criticism, but to his narrative of the great Persian War and those local and other details which belonged to his own day and generation; the authority of his "recent" history is accepted by many of the most sceptical of moderns and forms the basis of their own accounts. If Thucydides is esteemed more scientific than Herodotus, it must be remembered that he was writing of the Peloponnesian War from first-hand information; and it was of the treatment of current events

that he explained his soundly scholarly method: "As to the deeds done in the war, I have not thought myself at liberty to record them on hearsay from the first informant or on arbitrary conjecture. My account rests either on personal knowledge or on the closest possible scrutiny of each statement made by others. The process of research was laborious, because conflicting accounts were given by those who had witnessed the several events, as partiality swayed or memory served them."

How strongly the ancients held to the view that the historian should concern himself primarily with the happenings of his own day is naively stated by Isidore of Seville, that interesting encyclopædist of the seventh century: "History is the story of what has been done, and by its means what has taken place in the past is perceived. It is called in the Greek *historia,* that is from seeing (videre) and learning (cognoscere). For among the ancients no one wrote history unless he had been present and witnessed what was to be described. For we understand what we see better than we do what we gather by hearsay. For what is seen is told without lying. This study belongs to grammar because whatever is worth remembering is entrusted to letters. . . . "*

We might go down the list of recognized historians and point out that if those who had written of their own times were now banned as impostors and excluded from our guild what a slight remnant would remain as our professional forebears. If you condemn the "recent" historian, you are condemning Herodotus, Thucydides, Xenophon, Cæsar, Sallust, Tacitus, Ammianus, Eusebius, Einhard, Joinville, Otto of Freising, Bishop Burnet, Ranke, Sybel, Seignobos, Macaulay, Spencer, Walpole, Karl Marx. Destroy the like of these and we would be pitiable orphans in an inexplicable world.

One conclusion we may now accept, that many eminent and scholarly historians, by writing of their own times, have vicariously removed from present-day advocates of recent history the stigma of defending novelties. But more suggestive from our point of view than any appeal to conventional authority is an investigation into the problem of perspective. I am free to admit that I have

* The Etymologies—On Grammar, Ch. 41.

only a vague idea as to what is meant by the much-used word "perspective." Perspective is something that is perpetually in a state of flux—ever fluid, changing, varying along with that other vague thing—the "spirit of the age"—the *Zeitgeist*. History has always been not merely man's past but what man from age to age has thought it was. The historian, rather than individual facts, has made history, and the historian has always been influenced by the period in which he lived. The ancients found in history the stuff of which literature was made—Clio was a sister muse to those of the drama and of poetry. The Christian fathers, such as Augustine, Lactantius, Orosius, and Salvian, to mention only early ones, discovered in history the evidence of God's providence and the proof of His vengeance. To the Deists and rationalists of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries—Gibbon, for instance—history opened vistas of reason and law and order and supplied examples in statecraft and the succession of empires. The evolutionary conceptions of the nineteenth century added a philosophy and a scientific method. And the Industrial Revolution has of late emphasized the importance of social and economic history. The perspective of history has been, then, at different times predominantly that of literature, ethics, law, philosophy, science, or economics.

If this assumption is correct, we must face the logical deduction that every historian has been influenced to greater or less degree by the perspective of his own day and place, and that it has mattered very little whether the field of his research was immediate or remote. I have already shown that reputable historians are divisible into two classes; those writing of their own times, and those writing of times anterior to their own. I make no effort to deny that the former have been influenced by the point of view and the major interests of the environment in which they lived. But I am now prepared to assert that the latter have been likewise influenced, that historians of the more distant past have often displayed too fondly their individual predilections or the bias of their own age. Let us call up a few illustrious names.

Take Gibbon. He wrote of what was to him a distant past, and yet his own explanation of his method sounds strangely like that of Thucydides, the writer of current events: "I have always

endeavored to draw from the fountainhead; my curiosity, as well as a sense of duty, has always urged me to study the originals; and if they have sometimes eluded my search, I have carefully marked the secondary evidence on whose faith a passage or a fact were reduced to depend." Granted that the two proclaim a striking similarity of aim and method, does Gibbon show better perspective and less bias than Thucydides? Without directly answering the question, we may quote Gibbon's famous summary of his own monumental labor: "I have described the triumph of barbarism and religion,"—for it also indicates a perspective, and an even more personal perspective than that of Thucydides. It is important to remember that Gibbon was a true son of the eighteenth century; he had studied with sympathy Locke and Montesquieu and the *philosophes;* he despised revealed religion and ecclesiastical organization; he lauded science and natural law and the deeds of the great dominions and potentates; even the style of expression is as distinctly a mark of his own age as the artificialities in the novels of Rousseau. The perspective of *The Decline and Fall* is a perspective of the eighteenth century; the period of the dissolution of the Roman Empire had another perspective; the perspective of the nineteenth century is something else; and that of the twentieth century may be yet different. Professor Bury intimates that finality of perspective in dealing with the distant past is an impossible ideal. "If Gibbon were writing now," he says, "the tone of his 'candid and rational inquiry' would certainly be different. His manner would not be that of sometimes open, sometimes transparently veiled dislike; he would rather assume an attitude of detachment. He would be affected by that merely historical point of view, which is a note of the present century and its larger tolerances; and more than half disarmed by that wide diffusion of unobtrusive scepticism among educated people, which seems to render offensive warfare superfluous." (J. B. Bury in the introduction to his edition of Gibbon, p. 39.)

Probably no one has contributed more to the scientific theories of historical research than Ranke with his axiomatic dictum: *Ich will bloss sagen wie es eigentlich gewesen ist.* Now Ranke divided his labor between events of the immediate past and those of the more distant past. In both fields, however, he at once displayed the

historian's spirit of criticism and certainly reflected the influence of his own environment. It was his interest in the practically contemporaneous Servian Revolution that led him to publish a history of it in 1829; it was the stirring scenes in the War of 1877 that revived his interest in the Balkan situation and caused him to expand his earlier work into a history of Servia and Turkey in the nineteenth century. It was the remarkable Catholic revival in his own country in the first half of his own century that undoubtedly stimulated Ranke's studies of the papacy of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Then, too, it was Ranke's privilege to watch with his own eyes the rise of a new political entity, United Germany; no wonder that in a period seemingly dominated by blood and iron the historian should deal by preference with the rulers and chief potentates of the world and that throughout all his writings should run a contemptuous disregard of the plain people, a neglect of economic problems, and a glorification of political institutions, especially the State. Ranke's country and century conditioned his perspective in viewing the distant as well as the recent past.

It was likewise with Macaulay. The English nobleman was a Liberal member of Parliament vitally interested in the problems created by the Industrial Revolution, and his social and Whiggish preferences are easily recognizable in his historical writings. His perspective, like that of Ranke or of Gibbon, was of his own generation. Only his English environment in the middle of the nineteenth century would enable Macaulay to plead for his own conception of utilitarian history, and to write, "What do we mean when we say that one past event is important and another is insignificant? No past event has any intrinsic importance. The knowledge of it is valuable only as it leads us to form just calculations with respect to the future. A history which does not serve this purpose, though it may be filled with battles, treaties, and commotions, is as useless as the series of turnpike tickets. . . ."*

If time permitted I might cite many another instance of a perspective supplied by the author's own environment. That such men as Mommsen, Freeman, Aulard, Luchaire, and Fustel de Coulanges cannot fully escape the charge, is in itself no overwhelming indict-

* Critical and Historical Essays, vol. 5, p. 155 (London, 1879).

ment against their historical-mindedness or their undoubted position as eminent historians. That a similar charge may with justice be levelled against writers of recent events, is in itself no impossible barrier to the admission of such men to the historians' guild, provided of course that when they deal with the Turkish War of 1912, as with the Crusades, they keep ever before their eyes Ranke's dictum: *Wir wollen bloss sagen wie es eigentlich gewesen ist.*

Not everyone who has called himself an historian has practiced this golden rule of the historians' cult, and I am ready to admit that many professed historians who have written of contemporary events have painfully and guiltily prevaricated or woven into their stories feelings and sentiments of their own. But I insist that that comes not so much from the nature of the subject-matter as from the lack of historical-mindedness on the part of the particular writer, and if the same writer were to turn his attention to the Trojan War, he would probably find it easy to saddle the Greeks with all his peculiar present-day hobbies. I believe that the careful, painstaking, critical scholar, trained in the methods of scientific history, will be more likely to go wrong in recent than in far-away times.

I have now offered a few suggestions in defense of the propriety of studying recent history in a scholarly manner. Abundant materials are at hand; the method is clear; the difficulty of perspective should not disturb us. The second series of suggestions—those relating to the value of teaching recent history—are simple and need not long detain us.

I appreciate the fact that I am addressing auditors who sympathize with the contention that real history is the most valuable of all humanistic studies; that, in our modern evolutionary habits of mind, recently impregnated with Bergsonianism, history is the only explanation of our being, of our life, of the riddle of the universe. If we believe what we customarily profess that historical training is a most valuable part of the educated gentleman's mental equipment, then we must teach history. Both from the cultural and from the utilitarian standpoint, there can be no doubt among teachers of history about the value of their subject.

So we teach history. But in many instances what amazing history it is! Too frequently in a course in European history in high

school or college the teacher lays great and enduring foundations in the political, social, and religious life of the Roman Empire, and then adds a heavy, substantial storey of dreary brown-stone facts quarried from the mediæval church, the mediæval empire, and the early national states, and ornamented possibly with quaint windows of the Renaissance and the Reformation, but does little more toward completing a beautiful and serviceable structure than here and there to run up into modern times an ugly girder or a mere scantling. Boys and girls who have had this kind of instruction are likely to show on examination for entrance to college that they possess a thorough knowledge of the attitude of Innocent the Third toward the Albigenses which is equalled in intensity only by their ignorance of the attitude of Leo the Thirteenth toward the social democrats.

It is not very much better in the case of American history. Course after course stops short with the Reconstruction of the South, just as if the great drama of European exploration and colonization and of the separation of the thirteen colonies from the mother-country reached its climax in the Civil War! How else can we explain the woeful lack of knowledge about the marvellous growth of the United States within the last three decades?

This point has been well put by Professor Seeley, referring to the corresponding misteaching of the story of his own country. "The interest of English history ought to deepen steadily to the close, and, since the future grows out of the past, the history of the past of England ought to give rise to a prophecy concerning her future. Yet our popular historians scarcely seem to think so. Does not Aristotle say that a drama ends, but an epic poem only leaves off? English history, as it is popularly related, not only has no distinct end, but leaves off in such a gradual manner, growing feebler and feebler, duller and duller, towards the close, that one might suppose that England, instead of steadily gaining in strength, had been for a century or two dying of mere old age. Can this be right? Ought the stream to be allowed thus to lose itself and evaporate in the midst of a sandy desert? . . ."*

* J. R. Seeley, The Expansion of England (1909), p. 2.

Throughout the wide fields of European and American history this strange occurrence is observable—rich streams pouring down from the middle ages, but growing ever smaller, and at length evaporating altogether in the course of the nineteenth century. In view of this phenomenon, it is not surprising that the average reader, in college as well as out of it, is liable to find that his darkest ages are since 1870, and that, too, despite the fact that he is a reader of newspapers and an occasional commentator upon current events. To overcome ignorance, if for no other reason, let us teach recenf history.

That is not the sole value, however, that attaches to the teaching of recent history. Another real advantage will be inferred from a few lines which, if you will bear with me, I would quote further from Professor Seeley, "Here is no bad question for historical students at the opening of an academic year, the opening perhaps to some of their academic courses. You are asked to think over English history as a whole and consider if you cannot find some meaning, some method in it, if you cannot state some conclusion to which it leads. Hitherto perhaps you have learned names and dates, lists of kings, lists of battles and wars. The time comes now when you are to ask yourselves, To what end? For what practical purpose are these facts collected and committed to memory? If they lead to no great truths, having at the same time scientific generality and momentous practical bearings, then history is but an amusement and will scarcely hold its own in the conflict of studies." That is the point, my friends. While we continue to teach ancient and mediæval history and early modern history—and remember at no time do I decry the study and teaching of those periods—it remains essential to teach recent history, for thereby only can there be a meaning and a lively interest in the students' minds for the history of the more distant past.

Do you stop to think that recent history, in bringing direct contact with to-day, concerns the future life-work of every collegian and high school student? Have you heard it said so often that the boys and girls in your class rooms will soon be called upon to do the world's work, that you in any sense doubt it? You wrong your wards if you do. Do you reflect what a glorious name and fair mission is really yours—Servants of the servants of this Re-

public? Even if you do not teach your pupils to entertain a great respect for the siege of Carthage, you can fill them with something akin to wonder by opening up their minds to the epoch-making character of the Spanish-American War or to the marvellous building of the Panama Canal. In the instruction of young persons there is such a thing as relativity. History will not be the less cultural by being the more utilitarian.

And now, of all times, a special consideration makes recent history imperative. Now that the Industrial Revolution has produced, within a hundred years, more changes in our daily life,—in actual living, in working, in travelling,—than are witnessed by the documented history of all preceding ages, history has infinitely increased its usefulness and its instructiveness. We are just beginning to appreciate the significance of the new social *milieu* created by the Industrial Revolution, and to understand that it is full of portents for the rising generation. It makes recent history *the* humanistic study *par excellence.*

My colleague, Professor Shotwell, referred to this matter in a paper which he read to you two years ago. "It is true," he said, that this modern industrial history "is not a topic hoary with age and filled with the romance of those

> Old forgotten far-off things
> And battles long ago.

But no epic ever recorded such triumphs, no tragedy such sufferings as these triumphs cost. The story of the women and children of England who bought her world empire at the loom and in the mine, of starving mobs of Paris who died fighting for $1.50 a week in 1848, these are things which must go into our histories along with the growth of democracy and the spread of higher social ethics. If Dante were to come to life again to-day, these things, and not merely the diplomacy of Metternich or the intrigues of St. Petersburg would be the theme of his *Divine Comedy.* And Herodotus, the father of us all, would be investigating how things like railroads could make possible a single nation on this continent. With such things, or their counterparts, did he busy himself in the old days

when history was young. The fact that they are in the recent past is no argument either for or against them—certainly not against. For no one would have laughed more than this same Herodotus at the claim of those who say that one cannot write the history of one's own times and of the immediate past."*

Not only has the Industrial Revolution lately opened to us an important field for historical labor, but it has supplied us with valuable tools for prosecuting our work. In older times "recent" history was handicapped by the isolation and consequent provincialism of every part of the world; the monk in his monastery might prepare a careful chronicle of ecclesiastical processions and earthquakes and floods and neighborhood conversions; the scribe of a royal council might epitomize the passing political transactions of his master's court; the reflective scholar might tell the tale of war or adventure which came to his ears in his own locality; but the horizon of all these writers could be enlarged only so far and so fast as a stage-coach might drive or a ship might sail. Under these circumstances, the teaching of recent history might prevent difficulties, for how was an instructor in the University of Oxford to learn quickly in 1453 of the capture of Constantinople by the Musselmans, much less to chalk on an outline map the exact position of the various Turkish divisions and the precise place where fell fighting the last Emperor of Rome? But the Industrial Revolution has changed all this. Railroads and steamships and telegraphs and telephones and the daily press and numberless vast libraries have tied the furthermost parts of the world close to the hithermost; stereographs and phonographs and kinematoscopes have miraculously enabled the New Yorker to see in his own school the mobilization of Bulgarian troops or the assembling of the Chinese Parliament or the art treasures of the Vatican and the Louvre and to hear speeches of the French president or of the prime minister of Great Britain. The world, more humanly interesting than ever, has shrunken into a globe so small that it may be handled by children.

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* J. T. Shotwell, Social History and the Industrial Revolution, The Annual Convention of the Association of the Middle States and Maryland, 1911.

These are the few suggestions which I have been minded to make as a plea for the propriety of studying, and the value of teaching, recent history; and I shall rest content if they serve to precipitate discussion and evoke criticism which, more successful than the mortar of the mediæval alchemist, may possibly transmute my baser metal into fine gold.

DISCUSSION

C. L. Hewitt, Central High School of Syracuse, said that he thoroughly approved Dr. Hayes' contention that the study of recent history is very valuable. He believed that in view of the fact the forces behind our recent developments in political and industrial history are so obscure, and in some instances so corrupt, that it would take an exceedingly brave writer to treat them as one would treat movements a century old, for fear of incurring the ridicule of those behind the scenes who are manipulating the wires controlling the puppets in our public life. In other words, in the absence of true documentary evidence, a writer may fall into error of interpretation from surface indications. Dr. Channing of Harvard in the last issue of the History Teachers' Magazine, has voiced Mr. Hewitt's contention even more strongly.

R. G. Leonard, Utica Academy, New York: In regard to the teaching of ancient history to the exclusion of recent history I am convinced that we are doing the pupils an injustice. Ancient history has very few touchable points for the average first or second year high school pupil. I have found it very hard to stimulate the interest of the class, because the pupils do not come in contact with these same characters or geographical locations in their everyday reading. The geography of the Balkan War cannot be closely linked with the geography of Ancient Greece, Macedonia and Thrace, only now and then a familiar ancient history place looms up.

Then too often ancient history is the only history that a pupil studies and the application of his historical knowledge can not be so beneficial as it would be if he had a good training in the history of the development of our modern Europe and better still a connected knowledge of modern Europe and America.

I am sure it would be much better to teach my boys and girls of Utica, coming from Italian, German, Polish, Jewish, and Welsh homes, to say nothing of the so-called American homes, something about their grandfathers and the problems they had to face, rather than to try to impress them with the evolution of our republic from the Roman republic. The old statement holds good in teaching that it is not so much what we teach as how we teach it. But I can not

help thinking that as our present-day mechanics need the best and most usable tools, so with the present-day teacher of history, he needs to teach a tangible history. I do not want to see ancient history go out of our schools, but I should far rather see it go than have our study of recent history excluded or neglected as it is at the present time under our present curriculum.

I do not approve of a skimmed historical course nor one that tries to cover too much ground, but I do sincerely believe that a course in history can be found that will contain a careful selection of important ancient history, the transition from ancient to modern and then a careful selection of such parts of modern history that the high school boy may read the literature of the present and appreciate it. That he may read current events and be able to understand the geography and historical illusions. But better than all this, I want my pupils to get a love for history that will not cease with class rooms, and I find that ancient history discourages rather than encourages.

EFFICIENCY OF THE HISTORY RECITATION*

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For the past ten or fifteen years, the history teachers of this country have devoted all too much of their time to discussing questions of course of study. Too many of them have been disposed to forget that methods of teaching, too, deserve a considerable portion of our thought and study. After all, the most important factor in the schoolroom is not the curriculum but the teacher. What we need in our secondary schools even more urgently than a better course of study in history is more teachers of character, full of enthusiasm for the subject of history, trained to investigate and to think about its data, and conversant with the best methods of presenting the subject to children of secondary school age.

These are the prerequisites. But more, much more, than this is needed if the recitation in the history room is to reach its highest efficiency. Let us begin with the simplest things. Every teacher should, during every minute of the day, be master of the situation in his classroom. For a number of years now I have recommended to beginners these six rules of thumb: (1) Have some definite, simple exercise ready upon which the class can go to work the moment the recitation bell rings. (2) Never call the class as a whole to order; issue your command to an individual, e. g., "Jones, sit down!"—when Jones comes to order, the rest will speedily follow. (3) Never allow more than one pupil to come to your desk at a time; at least, not until you are absolutely sure that you have perfect control of the class. (4) If no written work is to be done, see that the desks are cleared of books and papers and that the pupils have nothing in their hands to distract their attention. (5) Never interrupt the recitation to discipline an individual. If the case is

* This address was printed in the May, 1913, number of the Educational Review.

serious enough to require more than a word of reminder or reproof, settle it in private either at the end of the period or at the end of the day. (6) Always be sure that you have sufficient work planned to keep the class busy for the entire period and that the plan is so clear in your mind that it will work automatically and without any thought on your part. Teachers who follow these rules rarely have occasion to complain of the conduct of their boys or girls. Children who are busily engaged under the direction of the teacher have no time for mischief and consequently the problem of discipline settles itself. Indeed, in nine cases out of ten, breaches of discipline are due to some lack in the teacher rather than to some fault in the child. In the tenth case, the difficulty arises because the teacher has failed to anticipate and provide for some mental, moral or physical weakness in the boy or girl.

The teacher who comes to a school well prepared in his subject, who succeeds at the very beginning of his career in establishing a mastery over the class, has entered on the highroad to success. But the road before him still has many difficulties which he must overcome. He needs to continue reading in his subject; he needs to keep in close touch with the economic, the social and the political thought of his day; he needs above all to study his own classroom methods and the methods of his colleagues so that he may grow more and more skilful in his work.

There are books and to spare upon the method of the history recitation. Most of them are academic and of little value, but I should advise every history teacher to possess at least four books which are invaluable: (1) McMurry's *Method of the recitation* (not his *Special method in history*); (2) McMurry's *How to study;* (3) Johnson's *History in the elementary school* (*Teachers College record* for 1908) which is full of suggestions for us all, and (4) Keating's *Studies in the teaching of history,* based upon experiences in the English schools.

But books alone will help one only a little way on the road. The teacher must see to it that his classroom is permeated with an atmosphere of the student of history. Even if the school authorities do not furnish proper equipment, he must use his ingenuity to supply himself. There must be maps and pictures, books and

magazines, pamphlets and bulletins, diagrams and charts. We all know that a physical or a chemical laboratory furnishes in itself an invitation to study the phenomena of nature, that a library offers to most men and women an irresistible invitation to read. Watch a group of boys and girls in a well-equipped history room. You will find them discussing the maps and pictures on the wall, handling the books and magazines on the desk, loitering before the recitation begins and after it closes to examine the announcements on the bulletin boards. They will become interested if only they are given a chance.

Above all, no teacher of history can ever be successful unless he carefully plans his work. He must know before the term begins just what he hopes to accomplish in each lesson; he must have a conscious purpose which unifies the entire work of the course. For example, he must recognize in the history of the United States, and indeed in the history of every nation of modern times, three great currents running side by side: (1) an economic and social development which affects the life of every individual of the nation, (2) a development of forms and practises of government which enables the rulers and the people to express their united wills, (3) a foreign policy which determines the relations of the nation with other peoples of the world. Many times these currents mingle and flow together, but even then one can study them as though they were separate and distinct. With this general plan determined upon, the teacher should consciously arrange each day's work so that it will contribute toward the general plan. One day the class may be working upon a subject which is largely economic in its content, another upon one which is political, a third upon a question of foreign affairs. In each case the teacher must be careful that the day's work carries the class definitely forward toward a given goal. The purchase of Louisiana, for example, should be a lesson in economic development, if the teacher determines on that plan, or a lesson in the development of constitutional practise, or even a lesson on the development of a foreign policy, or of all three combined. The one thing that I should demand is that the details of the story of the purchase should never be studied

in or for themselves without making them contribute toward the purpose of the term's work.

As to the conduct of the recitation—the daily working plan: the primary test which I believe that every teacher should apply to his work is this, "a subject to the development of which the pupil is not himself always contributing soon ceases to excite his interest" (Keatinge, p. 4). Let the teacher examine the recitation constantly to see whether he is active and the pupils passive, whether he is reciting and the pupils listening. If such a condition exists the lesson is almost sure to be a failure. The ideal recitation is a conference between pupils and teacher in which the pupils are asking at least as many questions as their leader. Certainly the recitation must be a constant give and take or else it degenerates rapidly into a didactic exercise in which the pupils will speedily lose interest. Try the experiment of letting one of the pupils take charge of the class; let him ask you questions as one of the members of the group whenever he or any other member of the class is in doubt; force him to keep to the subject in hand; insist that he distribute opportunities to contribute to the conference among all the members of the group, and watch the interest of the class grow until it overflows the bounds of the recitation period and extends into the room of the next teacher to whom the class reports. When you have taught the class to work in this way, absent yourself frequently from the room for half the period—sometimes for the whole period—so that the group will feel that the conference is its own. The students may be noisier than when you are in the room; but the noise will be legitimate; frequently half a dozen of them will be trying to talk at once!

Personally, I always assign the subject for the following recitation at the beginning of the period. I recognize that I am violating an accepted principle of pedagogics in so doing, but there are so many vicissitudes which may interfere with the assignment at the end of the period that I prefer to take no chance. The skilful teacher in history will never assign a lesson by pages alone. I know of no practise which is more reprehensible than to say to a class: "Take pages 125 to 135 for to-morrow; draw the map on page 132." Yet how many teachers never get beyond this stage! In the first

place, an assignment should be by topics rather than by pages; if necessary, with the beginning classes, the pages of the book can be given as well; but the pupils must be made to understand that they are given as a reference only, that the information might be gotten somewhere else just as well. Home work should be carefully differentiated from classroom work; pupils should be made to feel that they are to learn certain facts from the book which are to be the subject of discussion at the next meeting, not facts to be repeated by rote. Home work should be assigned with the book open, difficulties in the text explained, essentials and non-essentials pointed out; problems for thought should be indicated, and tests upon the content of the lesson given which the pupils can apply to themselves. A record of lesson assignments should never be made on scraps of paper; indeed it is well to insist that an assignment book should be kept into which history notes alone are to be entered. Personally I have abandoned the formal history note book entirely; my boys use their note books as history diaries; they enter assignments in them, they use them for taking notes on their reading in preparation, they draw illustrative diagrams and maps in them as occasion demands, and they make such comments in them on the discussion of the topic of the day's recitation as seem to them most worth while. Frequently, on the basis of the work already accomplished, pupils should be made to assign the advance work for themselves. Thus, at the end of the Civil War in United States history, they should be able to analyze the situation sufficiently to see that on the following days they will be engaged in discussing (a) the return of the North to normal peaceful conditions, (b) the re-establishment of normal relations between the seceded States and the Union, and (c) the setttlement of the negro question in the South. As I see it, the lesson assignment deserves at least one-fifth of the entire recitation period. When less than that amount of time is given to it, the results will show that preparation has been mechanical and without the proper amount of thought.

Every recitation in history should be made to conform to one or another of certain definite types. Occasionally the teacher will find it profitable to combine two or three of these types in one

period, but ordinarily this should not be the case. Certainly the successful teacher will be conscious of the type he is employing and will not vitiate his work by confusing two or more of them.

The simplest type of recitation consists in reproduction of memorized text. Some things in history are important enough to be worth knowing word for word. Thus the man who would understand his English history well can afford to memorize two or three sections from each of the four or five epoch-making documents in the history of that nation. Similarly, certain sections of the Constitution of the United States, such as Article I, § 8, cl. 1 and cl. 18, and the Xth Amendment are so frequently referred to that the pupil will save time if he knows them by heart. Such exercises have a distinct pedagogic value which the history teacher can not afford to neglect.

Another type of recitation is the one devoted to training pupils in the sense of time or the sense of locality. The time sense in children is inevitably weak—their experience covers at best only ten or fifteen years. To the average child the Civil War is as remote, as far as his personal experience goes, as the Revolutionary War; fifty years and a hundred years, a hundred years and a thousand years are equally vague as periods of time. The devices which a skilled teacher will use for fixing the relation of events to each other are many, no one of them should be used exclusively, but they should be carefully thought out and insistently applied. "Dates," says Johnson, page 24, "suffering from a reaction from admitted abuses of an earlier regime, have in many places fallen into an undeserved disrepute"

Map work, too, deserves a liberal proportion of the time. The average boy or girl, especially if his life has been confined to the city streets, has as little sense of relative locality as he has of the lapse of time. Buffalo and Chicago, Cincinnati and St. Louis are all "somewhere out west;" Germany and France, Austria and Russia are "in Europe;" Mesopotamia and Persia, in the great unknown. Beyond that the average boy or girl seldom goes. He will walk to a map and point in blissful ignorance to the Danube when you ask him for the Rhone, and to Japan when you ask him for the Philippines. It takes patience to correct this fault. One needs

to start with a few elementary facts such as the location of the Mississippi and the Great Lakes, the peninsula of Italy and the British Isles; but in the end one can build up a reasonable geographic background on which to lay the principal movements and events in history. My one caution to most teachers is to go slow. Discover, if possible, some two or three boys or girls whose sense of locality and distance has been developed by travel and use them as guides to the rest. Illustrate geographic phenomena from simple examples near home, and the class will ultimately learn to play the game of locating places with zest. I found a boy only the other day who, quite without any direction from me, was reading Semple's *American history and its geographic conditions.*

The good history teacher will make frequent use of the cumulative review. I know of no exercise that is more valuable than this. The first time your class studies the story of the Punic Wars they may fail to understand their significance, but if you make the conquest of the eastern Mediterranean an occasion for gathering up the history of all the Roman conquests up to that time and do the same thing when you are about to take up Cæsar's wars, and so on to the end, you will find that the facts of the Punic Wars and all the other Roman conquests have finally found firm lodgment in the pupil's mind. Let me illustrate from another example nearer home. Each new tariff act in United States history should serve as an occasion for a review and a comparison of all the tariff acts that have gone before; each new slavery enactment, for a study of all those of previous years, and so with every other topic of a similar kind. The class will, after a time, learn to expect these cumulative reviews and prepare for them whether you direct them to or not.

One of the most difficult tasks that the instructor in history encounters lies in the effort to secure an accurate and clear statement of the facts in a given case, especially to get an adequate judgment based upon these facts. The fault here lies at the door of the entire body of teachers, not at that of the history teacher alone. It is easier to correct a boy or girl than to force him to correct himself, to supply him with ready-made judgments, than to insist that he reason things out for himself. Time presses and

we are human in our desire to cover the ground. Nevertheless, patience and persistence and willingness to go slow will pay the careful teacher in the end. Force the pupil who misstates a fact to verify his statement then and there; force him, with pencil and paper, if necessary, to set his thoughts in order; refuse to accept incorrect or slovenly English; keep insisting on properly constructed paragraphs, and in the end you will have your reward. At the bottom of the trouble usually lies a vagueness as to the facts and an insufficient comprehension of the meaning of an author's words. Allow a pupil to refresh his memory, if necessary,—that is what adults are constantly forced to do—and he will in the end usually express himself clearly and coherently enough. Boys and girls find no difficulty in talking fluently and correctly about things with which they are familiar and about things in which they are interested. They know their own minds and have their opinions about their own affairs. Allow them to get the facts about a given period of history, arouse an interest in these facts, and they will talk as coherently and as reasonably about history as they do about a football game or a dance.

The rapid fire recitation where short, unadorned statements are expected calls for an altogether different method. Here no question of judgment or reason is involved, and here no hesitation should be allowed. "Facts are not questions of thought" is an axiom in my classes. "You don't have to think to remember your name, your house number, or your age." If a fact is one which is frequently called for, its statement should be as automatic as the statement of one's name; if it is to be recalled by mental process, insist that the pupil do it by a series of associations and force him to describe the process to the class. Such exercises in association of ideas are among the most valuable that the subject offers to the students.

Five or ten-minute written tests once or twice a week are indispensable exercises in every history class. In my classes we have them every day and the work is so organized that the burden of the work falls almost entirely on the boys. Every pupil in the class is responsible in turn for the written exercise. He prepares the question, he distributes the paper, he collects the exercises,

marks them, and enters the marks in the record book. This exercise forces the boy to put himself into an entirely new relation to the class. His classmates are at liberty to challenge him to answer the question himself and to question his judgment as to the evaluation of the answer written. Frequently the questions show that the boys have thought very carefully on the topic of the day. Recently, for example, the following question was put to a class in English history by one of my boys: "What does an Irishman mean when he says, 'The curse of Cromwell be upon you'?"

The blackboard is in a history teacher's room to be used. How many of us use it as much as we should? How many of us save time by writing directions for our classes where all may see them? How many use it for developing a subject by means of outlines as the recitation progresses towards its end? How many give pupils the opportunity of writing answers to questions or drawing maps or making outlines on the board where all the class can see them and criticize them? One of the most frequent comments of visitors from abroad, I am told, is an expression of surprise upon the amount of blackboard space at the disposal of teachers in our schools and upon the fact that we use that space as little as we do.

Finally, of types of recitations there is the one so commonly neglected—the recitation with the open book. Here, of course, the task of the teacher is to frame questions so that they can not be answered by a mere reproduction of the text. The questions must be of a type to compel criticism of the facts, comparison of events, judgments on the actions of men, and historical inferences based upon the written word. Properly conducted, such exercises are among the most valuable that the teacher can devise. But they require careful preparation and strict adherence to a predetermined plan.

If there is one thing that differentiates the history teacher who has a genius for his subject from all others, it is the ability to recognize the difference between a recitation that is based upon material that a pupil has really assimilated and made a part of his mental equipment and the recitation that is merely a reproduction of an author's words. "The boyish mind loves to remain on the sur-

face of things, if this saves trouble; it has an aggravating habit of remembering phrases which mean nothing to it and of forgetting details which might mean a great deal. A boy will tell you with a smiling face and an apparent consciousness of merit that 'Wyclif was the morning star of the Reformation' and fail, when pressed, to produce any facts about either the Reformation or Wyclif." (Keatinge, pp. 120-121.) It is only recently that a boy in attempting to describe conditions in Europe at the end of the eighteenth century told me that France was at war with Australia and Persia. His eyes for once had betrayed him; he had been reading merely words; these words had been recorded incorrectly upon the tablets of his brain, his mind has not reacted—his recitation was merely verbal and not ideal. In this case the fault was easy to detect. Examine your pupils on at least half their recitations and you will find that they are committing this same fault. They are "phonographing," as I call it, not producing those mental reactions that are the only excuse for retaining history in the secondary school course. That is why pupils forget their history so rapidly. The phonograph plate is re-polished almost every day and each day's record is obliterated in order to make room for the next. Frequently the polishing is imperfect, and then, when the recitation period comes, the teacher receives a jumble of words and phrases, incorrect and inaccurate statements made up of fragments of all the impressions which have been made upon the child's mind—and then he wonders why.

I confess that I am advocating a counsel of perfection; nevertheless, we shall never make our history real to our pupils until we begin consciously to strive to make it live in the child's mind. First of all, let us constantly attempt to prevent our boys and girls from giving us mere words that represent no ideas. Then let us use all our ingenuity in endeavoring to transport them to the time and place of the events. Let us attempt to reproduce the mental, moral and physical conditions under which the actors lived. Let us strive always to remove the sophistications and prejudices incident to our times, and finally, let us attempt to make the child react as though he were a boy or girl living in the age when the events took place. Haven't we all observed the youngster of fourteen who is wiser

than Alexander the Great or Napoleon? who knows beforehand that the efforts of Solon and of the Gracchi were doomed to failure? who calls George III. a stupid tyrant, and John C. Calhoun a rascal and a knave? Insist upon it that your pupils shall dramatize their history, that they shall imagine themselves back in the age which you are studying, that they shall keep diaries, write letters, meet each other in the Athenian academies, in the Roman assemblies, in the streets of London in the time of the Stuarts; that they shall make journeys on the Roman roads and in the ships of Columbus and of Drake. Ask them to imagine themselves back in the city of New York in 1840, and then demand that they give you their attitude toward the abolition movement. If they still declare that they are opposed to slavery, root and branch, make them justify themselves as children of that age; rigorously exclude all the elements which have influenced men's minds since then; and gradually you may attain to something that is approximately real.

There is just one more thing that I desire to add. All history work is valueless unless, once the pupils have gotten real ideas about history, their minds react upon these ideas. Boys or girls of secondary school age can solve a problem in mathematics, can perform an experiment in physics or chemistry, can work out syntactic relations in a passage of Latin, can make a ground plan of a dwelling house if the details and measurements are furnished. Why then do we history teachers assume that problems in history are beyond their years? Why shouldn't a boy be able to discover why Strafford deserted the parliamentary party between 1629 and 1639? Why shouldn't he be able to see the analogy between the annexation of Texas in 1845 and the annexation of Hawaii in 1898? Why shouldn't he be allowed to check and correct wrong conclusions in history by re-examining his data, as he does in chemistry? Why shouldn't he be forced to prove his answers just as he is in mathematics? Why shouldn't he be allowed to study the larger standard histories and the collections of sources, to discover the truth? Why shouldn't he be forced to use statistical tables and department reports? That these things can be done is proved in a hundred classrooms every day. It is only the lazy, the incompetent, or the inexperienced teacher who fails to use the best and latest material

at his hand. Such material is easy to procure. Keatinge, for instance, gives a score or more of exercises in the use of source materials which he claims he has used successfully in his classes. The modern textbooks are full of suggestions for similar exercises; new source books and readings in European, English and American history are published almost every year; yet there are hundreds of history teachers who never progress beyond a mere rote recitation based upon the words and opinions of one man.

In conclusion, may I quote the following words: "Method is not acquired in a day, and from the beginner in history teaching comparatively little can be demanded. Straightforward exposition and examination is frequently all that he is capable of, and the attempt to do more may distract his attention from the class. His mind should be stored with a knowledge of the possible varieties of method, but in the beginning he will do well to draw on his storehouse but little. It is when the first novelty of teaching has worn off that the necessity for method makes itself apparent. Teaching is a nerve-consuming process; vitality of nerve soon fails, and if vitality of spirit is not cultivated, dullness and inefficiency are the result. For the teacher who has thoroughly settled down to routine, who has reached the stage at which the varieties of school experience seem to have exhausted themselves the really serious struggle with the teaching life is beginning. If no effort is made the result easily may be that unimaginative process which is effective in producing examination results, but which inevitably destroys the educative and suggestive value of the subject. Where the teaching of such a subject as history . . . is concerned, it is of importance that it should not be entrusted to teachers who succumb to the influence of routine. At all cost it must be taken away from those . . . who think that 'it is the *teacher* who must generalize from and analyze facts' . . ." These are the words of Keatinge, who has proved that he is a master in his work.

DISCUSSION

E. W. Lyttle, New York State Department of Education: It is easy to discuss theories; it is not easy to discuss such conclusions

as Dr. Wolfson has presented, for they are based on a varied experience and have been thoughtfully developed from classroom toil.

Dr. Wolfson's statement that the content of history provided for high school pupils is rather less important than the methods employed in presenting history is well taken. The English budget, for instance, is as much a mystery to the high school pupil as the economic reforms of the Gracchi. The capable history teacher in either case will explain by referring to facts in the history or present life of America, or to some facts which the pupil happily does understand. The incapable teacher on the other hand will permit the pupil to repeat certain uncomprehended statements of the textbook which to him are meaningless because they have never really been apperceived.

In certain localities it is not easy to get ancient history incorporated in a curriculum because it is said that American history is too little known and is vastly more important than any other history. There are other communities where English history must perforce take precedence over any other foreign history because it is more closely related to American history. Yet how absurd would such contention against ancient history or in favor of English history appear provided history were always presented by the comparative method. Ambassador Bryce in his *American Commonwealth* showed so clearly the value of the comparative method that it would be impossible for the teacher of history in any foreign field to avoid teaching American history at the same time.

In the meeting last evening we had numerous examples of what Dr. Wolfson calls "phonographing." From one point of view these quotations to which we have listened are very ludicrous, but they are also pathetic in what they reveal. I cannot help feeling that as teachers of high school pupils we are aiming too high in our syllabuses and in our textbooks. Possibly we are two or three years in advance of the pupils' interests in much that we teach. How many of us remember just the processes by which we learned history? How many remember just what our youthful and progressive interests in history were? I see by the show of hands that perhaps ten per cent. of us do. Would it not be worth while for history teachers to hold occasionally experience meetings, to compare experiences and so check, if it needs checking, the tendency to aim over the pupils' heads?

Another way in which the real interests of pupils may be tested is by watching their choice of readings and by allowing a generous choice of composition topics.

Miss Ethel D. Bowles, Yonkers High School: The speaker of the morning mentioned four qualifications which the ideal his-

tory teacher should possess. I agree with Dr. Wolfson, but would emphasize more strongly the point of personality. The ideal teacher of history should possess an open mind capable of unprejudiced and non-partisan judgment. As history is the avenue which leads to the broadest culture and greatest mental efficiency, the teacher of this subject should not be a commonplace individual but rather one who can see and can force the pupils to see both sides of questions. Some of the suggestions for securing order seem to refer to local conditions and do not admit of general application. The speaker also made reference to a perfect plan which would work automatically. In my judgment it is well to perfect a plan in your study but not to use it in the class room. Any plan I have been able to devise considered two things; first, the class as a group, and second, the amount of material to be covered. A plan can not anticipate the action of the individual. I prefer to organize my material, to have a definite goal and depend upon the inspiration of the moment for method. For a teacher who teaches the same subject for six successive periods a perfected plan becomes mechanical, enthusiasm wanes. Then, too, a plan seems to lay emphasis on the amount of ground to be covered, ignoring the fact that quality not the extent of knowledge marks culture. The objection of doing without a plan is the time element. I admit that the necessity to prepare a class for certain tests within a definite period tends to departure from the ideal. The remedy for these conditions is greater efficiency and a higher sense of honor among teachers generally, so that we can be trusted with our own examinations.

Dr. E. P. Tanner, Syracuse University: In discussing Dr. Wolfson's paper Dr. Tanner said that he thought we owed a real debt of gratitude to Dr. Wolfson for turning our attention to what was, after all, of the greatest account for teachers,—the problem of conducting actual class work. "It seemed to me that the History Teachers' Association at its meetings would do well to carry further this line of discussion.

"The suggestions as to class room methods contained in the paper were certainly born of the fire of experience, and most of them would meet the approval of the practical teachers. On one or two rather minor points it appeared to me that Dr. Wolfson had exaggerated somewhat, as he had said he might do. The statement that recent history appealed to secondary schools very little more than the Peloponnesian War was contrary to my experience. Students might not know accurately about Home Rule, for example, but had generally heard enough about it to be interested in learning more.

"I had also to dissent regarding the amount of time to be spent in assigning advanced lessons. It might, indeed, be necessary at first to take up one-fifth of the period in this task, but the time should rapidly diminish. It was an important part of history teaching to train students to find out for themselves where the problems lay. All work must prepare them for eventual independence of the instructors.

"Dr. Wolfson's suggestion that the teacher need not feel that he must cover all the ground at any cost seemed to me a splendid one. What we need more than anything else is thoroughness, and this takes time. We do not dwell long enough on essentials. This is because secondary school teachers are compelled at the cost of their pedagogical lives to do a certain work in a certain time regardless of all other conditions. By all means let there be some exacting test of the qualifications of teachers when we are placed in our positions, and then give us some independence.

"I could not help thinking, however, as I listened to Dr. Wolfson's keen exposition of the faults and failings so commonly committed by history teachers, that all these things applied with special force to myself. I felt like the man in Mr. Jerome K. Jerome's well-known story who, on reading over a list of ills and ailments, at once perceived that he had them all except 'housemaid's knee.' Perhaps there was one of the failings from which I did not actually suffer, but I could not recall which one it was."

THE TEACHING OF CIVICS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

J. Lynn Barnard
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The term "civics," which the Century Dictionary inadequately defines as "the science of civil government," has come much into disrepute, these latter days. And no wonder, when one thinks of the dry-as-dust stuff that has so long masqueraded under that name, in public and private schools alike. The emphasis has usually been placed on the organization and legal powers of government, principally national, with no live discussion of what even the federal government really does, and still less as to state or local government. In fact, the pupil in the elementary school has been lucky if he has escaped "penal servitude" for one awful winter, while he memorized the Federal Constitution. And when the secondary school was reached he probably received another "indeterminate sentence" in the form of an encounter with an appalling array of juiceless facts about how we are governed, sacredly removed from practical application and carefully smuggled in with an equally uninspiring survey of United States history. And was this utterly unpedagogical performance supposed to help make good citizens? Not at all. It was supposed to be education-discipline. Whatever it was, we are fast outgrowing it. And this leaves us free to fill up this fine old word "civics" with a splendid new content.

To do this intelligently, let us first ask ourselves, frankly, this question: Why are we teaching any subject whatever in the elementary or the secondary schools? Is it for the sake of acquainting our pupils with a given number of facts, both new and strange? Is it with the forlorn hope of cultivating a so-called "faculty," or of instilling a special type of mental discipline, or of imparting a new flavor of "culture"? Or, are we content to do the thing which

Froebel told us to do, nearly a century ago, and which thoughtful parents are coming to demand of us as educators, namely, to acquaint the children with their varied environment during those impressionable years of childhood and early adolescence?

If the latter, how delightful the task! And all may contribute. Relationships of time and space, rightly developed, will make mathematics a feast,—but most of the present textbooks will have to "go a-glimmering!" Similarly the possibilities of self-expression through language and literature will render the class in English a joy,—but the "factative complement" and the "adverbial objective" will lie beyond the reach of Gabriel's bugle-call! And when the wonderful world of nature lying all about us is revealed to the enchanted eye and ear of the young explorer, who can picture his delight,—but the bones of the human body will go uncatalogued, and the Strait of Babel Mandeb will connect Great Salt Lake with Puget Sound—for all the happy youngster knows or cares! And when, finally, children's eyes are opened to their social environment—which in the cities and towns means well-paved streets, police and fire protection, schools, libraries, parks and playgrounds—they will experience equal pleasure and uplift,—but good old Uncle Sam's vigorous Constitution will no longer be solicitously inquired after; in fact, it will be almost forgotten that he has one!

If, then, we can agree that the immediate end of teaching boys and girls is to relate them to their environment, can we come into like agreement as to the ultimate end of all our teaching below college grade? Mr. Arthur W. Dunn, in the preface to his remarkable little textbook in civics, has given us the only answer that we shall dare to stand for. Says Mr. Dunn: "The function of the public school is to produce a good type of citizenship. There is no other sanction for the existence of the public school. The entire course of study and the whole round of school life should be directed to this end." The very title of Mr. Dunn's book is suggestive of the newer viewpoint. By "community" he means a group of people bound together by common interests and subject to common rules or laws. And any person, young or old, who shares in community benefits and is subject to community responsibilities is a "citizen." The home, the school, the church, the shop, the township, village

or city, the commonwealth, the nation,—all are types of the community, and all who participate in the life of each community are its citizens.

Once the child comes to grasp this idea of citizenship in the large, he can easily be carried over to one particular type which we may term political citizenship, and the study of which we term civics. Somewhat crudely defined, then, civics is the study of Man in his relation to his political environment—the State; and it includes both what the government does for him and what he may do in return, either individually or in organized groups.

Nature's gifts are free and unerring, while the Community's gifts are the result of social sacrifice and are often blundering and faulty. Therefore, it is all the more important and difficult to teach the boy and girl to appraise these latter blessings rightly, and to be willing to contribute their share toward securing them. And we may add, that the problem is a more complex one in the big cities with their large foreign population.

But now comes the vital point of this paper. The qualities of good citizenship cannot come from a mere accumulation of dry and more or less unrelated facts, nor from abstract generalizing about these facts; they must arise from a live, intelligent interest, which can be cultivated only by direct contact with community action—by enriching and capitalizing the child's own social experience.

Let us now consider a fairly definite program, for the elementary school, where the foundations must be laid for a structure that is to take a lifetime in the building of it. And this carries us back to the great master-builder, Froebel, and that wonderful educational tool, the Kindergarten. Here a splendid start is made in bringing the child into a sympathetic understanding of his social environment. The farmer, the carpenter, the blacksmith, all are friends, doing for him interesting services, which he sees, sings about, and imitates. This—for one or two blessed years. And then—he is "promoted" into the first grade, too often a desert waste, where the real world disappears and the world of books takes its place!

However, by various means this idea of the interchange of services, acquired in the Kindergarten, must be developed through-

out the primary years. The child must come to see that in return for the specialized service his father or mother is rendering to society, the father is receiving—through the medium of wages or salary—the services of carpenter, plumber, grocer, baker, milkman, iceman, doctor, teacher, preacher. And the child should be encouraged to talk about and appreciate the character of these services, and his family's dependence upon them. Even the pupil who comes to the rural school has a background of home experience to appeal to in enforcing this community idea.

During the first half of the grammar school period the child is still revelling in the hero-worshipping stage—the idealizing of men and things. And just as this is the most valuable opportunity for taking the child through the realm of European and American biography—carefully avoiding the complicated narrative history, for which he is not yet ready—so is it the time for helping him to understand, and hence to idealize, community service. This we may term biographical civics. In the cities especially there is a wealth of civic material, and even the small village is rich in such material, if the teacher has the instinct for discovering it. Realizing fully that the city of Philadelphia is unusually fortunate in this regard, and that each locality must solve the problem for itself—as some are already beginning to do—I shall venture to give a brief outline of what we are trying to accomplish in the Practice School (grammar grades only) of the Philadelphia School of Pedagogy. At least our experience may be suggestive and stimulating.

Let me say, at the beginning, that this work in civics in our Practice School is under the immediate direction of my competent assistant, Mr. E. W. Adams.

In the first half of the fifth grade a beginning is made with the child's common experiences within his home and his school. The topics taken up during the term (the order is not important) are: gas, electricity, water, sewage and the telephone. And the method is as follows: using the first topic, gas, as the illustration.

The teacher strikes a match and lights a gas-jet, looks at it a moment, and then turns it out. This bit of apparent idiocy catches the attention and excites the curiosity of the children to the nth degree, and this is exactly what the teacher is after. One ques-

tion after another traces the gas into the ceiling, down the side walls to the basement, until the meter is reached. How to read the meter is then explained, by diagram if necessary, and the fugitive gas is traced into the street. The cover is then taken off the street and then behold!—there is exposed a perfect network of pipes and wires. One particular pipe is followed till it enters a huge tank, and then the class has arrived (in its mind's eye) at the gas works. After a brief discussion of how the gas is manufactured, a visit to a convenient gas works is arranged for, and at the first class recitation after the trip interesting reports are made of what was seen and heard. Of course, this trip like all the others taken by the class is carefully planned by the teacher, and the sort of things to look for and inquire about are outlined with some care. A badly managed trip would be a waste of time, and bring the class work into disrepute.

All the topics mentioned above are taught in substantially the same fashion, taking care to begin each new discussion with a contribution by the class from its own store of information, and following this up with the trip and the after-discussion. Of the five topics covered this first term, the telephone is the prime favorite. And the amount of accurate knowledge and experience the average fifth grade class discloses in the preliminary discussion ought to convince any wide-awake teacher that the school room has no monopoly of the educative process. Its function, at best, is and should be largely one of direction and guidance. When the service of the community to the child has been shown with each of the above, the reciprocal duties of the child to the community are brought out by careful questioning which follows the lines of the pupil's own observation and experience.

In the second half of the fifth grade, what the child sees by looking out the window is drawn upon for material: such as the policeman, the fireman, the street sweeper, the garbage collector. Each of these is taken up in the manner already described, never omitting a possible trip or report or forgetting to emphasize the corresponding duties of citizenship resting upon the young citizens of the class.

During the early part of the sixth grade some of the educational institutions of the city are visited and reported upon: such as municipal playgrounds (in Philadelphia these are distinct from the school playgrounds), Fairmount Park, libraries, museums, historical buildings and localities. Later in the year visits are made to various public buildings, such as City Hall, Bourse, Customs House, Mint, armories and arsenals, hospitals. It must be kept in mind that not nearly all these trips are taken by the whole class, for this is obviously impossible, as well as unnecessary.

No regular textbooks are used in the fifth and sixth grades, but civics readers like Richman and Wallach's *Good Citizenship* and Hill's *Lessons for Junior Citizens* add interest to the work.

By the close of the sixth grade the pupils have acquired a fund of first-hand civic information and experience of a concrete and practical nature, no attempt having been made to generalize or to discuss political rights or duties from a legal standpoint. In fact the word "government" is not even mentioned: only the more general term "community." But during the seventh and eighth grades more attention can safely be given to the end and aim of governmental activity, and to the way in which public and private agencies unite to accomplish results. During the entire seventh grade the emphasis is placed on municipal government, using Philadelphia as the basis of comparison; while the eighth grade is shared about equally between commonwealth and national government, with the pupils' own state of Pennsylvania as the basis. However, this (to the child) artificial distinction between local, state, and national government is constantly broken over in the discussion of governmental activities, and is used only enough to impress the bothersome fact that there is such a three-fold entity to be reckoned with.

No better introduction to the more serious study of civics (in the seventh grade) can be found for Philadelphia boys and girls than the beginnings and growth of community action in their home city, as pictured so graphically in *Franklin's Autobiography*. They will see how various civic functions, such as street paving and cleaning, water supply, etc., at first performed by each householder, were gradually taken over by the municipality, and performed for all alike. The family and the home as factors in this community

life are particularly dwelt upon, that the children may rightly appreciate the civic importance of the home.

A series of studies is next undertaken to find out how their city—aided by state or nation—helps the normal citizen in relation to life, health, property, working and business conditions, transportation, education, recreation. And this naturally followed by a brief study of how the city—again aided by larger political units—takes care of its sub-normal citizens: the dependents, the defectives, and the delinquents. The idea of prevention is kept uppermost, or of restoration wherever possible. How the city gets the money to do all it does is briefly explained.

As each function is discussed the organization of the city government to do this community work is outlined, with occasional reference to the ordinances of councils and to the Philadelphia charter. And careful consideration is given to the co-operation of private agencies with various municipal bureaus and departments, that the pupils may see how community and citizen work together. It is remarkable how the young lads are galvanized into alert, watchful guardians of their city's interests; quick to discriminate between good paving and bad, between clean streets and dirty ones, between law enforcement and law defiance. If this is not the basis of good citizenship, what is?

Very much the same plan is followed during the eighth grade, in dealing with state and nation. Time forbids my entering into detail. As various activities are taken up, the governmental organization is sketched in outline—executive, legislative, judicial—never forgetting to find out where the money comes from to keep the machinery going. In studying about federal activities a beginning is made, wherever possible, at the point where nation and city find visible contact: e. g., the Post Office, the Customs House, the Mint, the Navy Yard.

Of course, the touch has to be light during these last two years, or the young people would be weighed down with confusing details. The process of selection and adaptation by the teacher must be continuous and unsparing. But, please observe this all-important point: the order followed is invariably that of the child's own interest and appreciation, namely, from function to structure, from the adminis-

trative department which does things to the legislative which plans the things to be done and the judicial which interprets and helps enforce those plans; and then, if necessary, to the charter or constitution which lays down legal powers and duties—never the reverse, as has so long been the custom. Moreover, the possibilities for co-operation between the community, acting through government, and the citizens, young or old, acting singly or through voluntary associations, is never lost sight of.

I have tried to show that civics is not one or more gobs ("gob" is a perfectly good word—you will find it in the dictionary)—of cold and indigestible facts, unrelated to life. Civics is itself a life—a growth—a point of view—Democracy in the making! This means, first, that the work in civics must be given adequate time in the school curriculum; and second, that the work must be continuous and cumulative, throughout the first eight years of school life. With this as the foundation and sub-structure, what a splendid superstructure of effective citizenship can be erected during the high school period, for the twenty per cent. who are so fortunate as to reach the People's College.

CIVICS IN THE HIGH SCHOOL AND TRAINING FOR CITIZENSHIP

James Sullivan
Boys' High School, Brooklyn

It is not my purpose to make a plea for civics in the schools or to present a program of topics which should find a place in any course in the elementary school, high school or college. After over half a century of continuous struggle civics has won an established place as a subject in all three of these institutions. Unlike many of the subjects in our secondary and elementary schools it has won its place from the bottom upward and was not imposed upon the schools by the colleges. The latter may in truth be said to have been the last to take it up.

The history of the gradual adoption of the subject in our schools makes clear to us many of the faults in the selection of topics and in the methods of instruction. It may be said that up to the middle of the nineteenth century the need for instruction in the machinery and workings of our government was not felt. In a population which was largely rural and American, knowledge of the government came to the ordinary man through active participation in it. After the great immigration began with the Irish famine and the European revolutionary movements there came to be thousands of people in our country who were unfamiliar with our institutions. As may be expected from such a condition of affairs, it was in 1859 that a first plea for instruction in civil government in the school was made before the National Teachers Association. This was followed by other pleas and gradually these brought about some results.

The first effects of the agitation was the introduction of the study of the Constitution of the United States. This document was for the purpose of the study appended to the United States histories and the students were frequently called upon to commit

it to memory. Somewhat later separate but small texts were written and these took up the Constitution clause by clause with brief comments. This method of instruction continued for years and unfortunately is all too prevalent at the present time. State and city governments were not considered at all, and it has been only within the last decade or two that these most important parts of our government have been given a place in the study.

With such an ancestry is it surprising that what we now call civics should so commonly be nothing more than a dry-as-dust study of the machinery of government? In truth that earlier study was not civics in our interpretation of the term, but was civil government narrowly conceived and properly so called. Now when a proper conception of civics includes a treatment of our duties in society, government in its actual working, and the history of civic development, it is unfortunate that teachers should so frequently teach the mere machinery of government and think that they have done their duty.

Dr. Barnard has stated so clearly here and elsewhere (see his article quoted in the United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1913, No. 41), the material which should find place in a course in our elementary schools that I shall not go into it at all. It gives some pleasure, however, to be able to say that the newly proposed syllabus for the elementary schools of the city of New York is along much the same lines.

In the high schools the study of civics has suffered and still suffers from the same faulty conception of the term "civics" as in the elementary schools. There has been the skeleton, but life has been absent. The mere machinery of government as it ought to work has been given, but how it works in actual every-day practice has been omitted.

Another cause militating against good civics teaching in the high schools is the theory advanced and upheld that civics may be taught as a part of history. There is probably no one theory which has been and is so destructive of good civics teaching. The teacher who tries to teach civics as a part of history is teaching not the government as it is actually carried on to-day, but government in the form of constitutional history. Civics thus becomes, as

Greek and Roman history used to be, the poor relation of another subject.

This theory has further hurt civics for the reason that examinations set have usually been on American history and civics. Because of considerations of length of examination papers, the questions on civics have been reduced to an absurdly small number and the study has assumed in the eyes of both teacher and pupil a proportionately unimportant place. Until we separate the examination in civics from that in American history, civics will never occupy the dignified position in our high schools that it should.

The teacher of civics in our schools, who may well be the teacher of history, should therefore so divide his work that instruction in civics stands out as a distinct course, having given to it a specified number of hours and having devoted to it an examination of its own. He should have always before his mind the actual conditions in the world of government to-day and frequently say to his class: "In theory the government should work this way, but in actual practice it works differently." Where opportunity offers he should bring in illustrative material and contrasts from other countries, for a course in civics should be broader than a mere treatment of American government and conditions. By way of example, nothing is more effective in the way of making students appreciate the Senate of the United States than a comparison of it with the House of Lords, the Bundesrath and the upper houses of other European countries. The effectiveness of Bryce's *American Commonwealth* is largely produced by making the contrasts which he employs. He is, so to speak, constantly saying: "In this country you do it this way; in England we do it this." Such a method leaves an indelible impression on the mind of the student.

It follows from what has been said that the teacher of civics must be an active participant in the affairs of the every-day world, a keen student of governmental and social conditions everywhere and a faithful reader of our best newspapers. It is difficult to say, but it is none the less true, that for this reason the average woman is disqualified as a teacher of civics. Much as some few may take an active interest in the political issues of the day, it must be said that the large mass of them are indifferent. It seems impossible to get the women teachers to go at the study of civics to prepare

themselves to teach it, in the same way that they approach such a subject as nature study, for example. It is very well to say that they ought to do it, but the fact remains that they do not. Without any wish to appear as the protagonist of woman suffrage, but merely in the expression of a desire to see the best civics teaching possible, I must say that the only way that seems practicable to get women interested both as teachers and students in governmental and civic affairs is to give them the ballot. Without it the average woman teacher of civics must ever remain ineffective, but this must not be construed as saying that every man teacher of civics is as conscientious as he should be in the fulfilment of his obligations as a participant in the politics of the day.

So far I have left untouched the most important part of the subject before us: "Training for Citizenship," and that for the reason that when asked to address you, the topic as given was differently put. I approach this new phase with extreme misgiving, and perhaps with undue pessimism. My conclusion will be worse than my approach in that when I am done I shall have no remedies to offer.

Mere knowledge of the machinery of government, of government in its actual working, of its good and its evil, will not make good citizens. Even ethical lessons put in appropriate places only too frequently fail when our young people go out into the world. It is with a sense of shame that we must realize that some of our worst political leaders are college graduates; that former members of our Federal Cabinet, filled with the erudition of our universities and knowing our government in all its intricacies, have utilized their knowledge to most corrupt ends in street railway and insurance manipulations. A former student of mine, who subsequently became the virtual head of a great life insurance company, said in a club in Boston: "I left college with the highest ideals. I went to New York and got into the maelstrom of actual life. There I was amazed to see that everybody I could call my friends—men of the highest education—were engaged in practices which I could call 'shady.' To my secret scruples came the oft-repeated statement: 'Those sentiments are very well for college, but they don't go in real life. Everybody's doing it, my boy.' "

What chance have our ethical lessons, even if we could find some practical way of giving them, against a world like that? Truly religion, the fear of God and the devil have left us and we have nothing to take their place. We have to fall back on glittering generalities and say we must train the boy's character so that he may have strength to resist temptation. Such training, however, is no more the function of civics than of any other subject in the curriculum. Training for character must be the sum total of all our training, but I must confess that I am at a loss how to train for character in our schools of to-day. Preaching does not, for if it did our students would all be saints. The examples of some teachers might, but these are negatived by the examples of other teachers, and the home and the world would upset any good influence, even if all our teachers were perfect. Texts on "Training for Character" ought to afford us some help, but they are mainly devoted to telling us what character is rather than to giving us some practical means to get results.

Perhaps the least that we ought to be able to say of our instruction in civics as an aid to good citizenship is that it will do away with corrupt bosses. Surely the intelligent products of our efforts will not be the followers of a boss, but will be actively engaged in bringing about his downfall at the polls. Here again we are bad teachers or bad prophets, for every election finds our civically educated and supposedly virtuous citizen on the band-wagon of one boss or another, and if he is not there, he is absent from the polls with his cynical: "What's the use?" We pity his taste, but the problem is there. I present it to you for practical suggestions for its solution. I cannot solve it.

TRAINING FOR CITIZENSHIP

Charles A. Beard
Columbia University

It is a happy sign of the times that the history teachers of the Middle States are devoting an entire session to the subject of secondary instruction in civics and that such a generous interest is manifested in the topic. It encourages us to hope for the speedy passing of the day when so important a matter as the rights and duties of citizenship can be disposed of in our schools by a few weeks of more or less perfunctory study of the Constitution, controlled by the high ideal of getting through the net spread by the regents' examiners. It encourages us to hope also that teachers will not rest content much longer either with the dominion usurped by history in the schools or with the cramping limitations now imposed upon civics by the state system.

In view of these signs of encouragement, I venture to turn aside from my theme to discuss for a moment the secondary problem as I view it. It is true that I have had no experience in that field, but as a citizen and one deeply concerned in the work of the schools, I will, at the risk of betraying my technical deficiencies, sketch what seems to me an ideal plan for the high schools. I should like to see in every high school in the country at least one year devoted to economics and civics, and preferably that should be the first year, because in that year we reach the largest proportion of those who are able to attend high school at all. These courses in civics should deal with the citizen's concrete relations to the great Marginal utility and the law of diminishing returns should be set aside in favor of the pressing enonomic problems of our age. The civics should deal with the citizen's concrete relations to the great political organism of which he or she is a part.

Immediately there arises in your minds that old bugbear which has barred the way to the introduction of so many reforms in the

high school curriculum—there is no room. The way to find room is to evaluate the work now given in the light of the needs of this age. My method of solving the problem of overcrowding is a drastic one, deliberate eviction. Wherever the old four-year history schedule is in force, it should be cut. To spend three years on the history of Europe, ancient and modern, and only one year on American history, civics, and economics is worse than a crime. How far removed from the spirit of democracy are those who support this "educational" outrage is apparent to anyone who stops to think for a moment. Under it students go out to take their places as citizens knowing more about the constitution of Athens than the charter of their home city, more about the mediæval serf than the modern working man, more about the women of the French Revolution than the women of America, more about the manor and guild than about the factory and trade union. In so far as the teachers of this country are responsible for any of the evils of American politics, the committee of the American Historical Association which devised the four-year historical course must assume the full burden.

How great was the wrong done to American democracy through this usurpation of dominion by history is apparent now, even to some of the historians, and a few are willing to concede a reduction of their overgrown domains. European history should be reduced to at least two years; American history should be given a full year; and economics and civics should be given a full year.

I have said that, in my opinion, the civics and economics should come in the first year. At once it will be said that this is pedagogically unsound, and that history should precede these more technical subjects. I will not admit the contention. On the contrary, I believe it is easier for the student to learn about the government and economic conditions of his own time than it is to understand the government and economic conditions of other and remote times. We turn our students into the study of antiquity or the middle ages, and we talk about "institutions," "conditions," "movements," "politics," and other abstract terms for which the student has no real content. It would seem wiser to reverse the process, and study the things that we can see about us first and then turn to the study of things that we cannot see and must visualize for ourselves

through the printed page of the textbook. Teachers of history will find that it is easier to interest students who are concerned about present economic and political problems in our country than immature students who are not concerned about anything in particular. History will, in fact, receive a new and startling revival when it is preceded by the study of economics and civics in the first year.

Having delivered myself of this burden, which has long been on my mind, I will turn to the subject assigned to me—college and university instruction in civics, and take under consideration first the subject-matter of an ideal college course, as I conjure it up in my imagination. In running over the recent history of the growth of instruction in politics in colleges—and though not an old man, I have in my day seen nothing short of a revolution in this field—I am struck with the fact that the subject-matter of the course has been undergoing a process of radical change.

When I first began to study and teach the subject, we were in what I call, a jocular mood, the eolithic age. Our instruction consisted largely of memorizing the provisions of the Constitution of the United States, from "We the people" to "Previous condition of servitude." Though in fact United States senators were elected by party caucuses or in some states by direct primary we went on repeating the clauses about their being elected by state legislatures. We solemnly listened to our students reciting that no state should impair the obligation of contract, although we knew that the language had no meaning to anyone not familiar with the technical legal decisions under that clause.

After a long and dreary season of this kind of business we passed into the paleolithic age of "actual government." We then took up the outward processes of government; we read with zeal election laws and city ordinances; we collected ballots and talked with politicians about party organization and machinery; and we discoursed learnedly on primaries and elections. Our civics books suddenly began to grow that abomination known as the "state supplement." Separation of powers and checks and balances were rudely jostled by registration laws and referendums. We proudly boasted that at last we were putting the potential citizens "right up against real politics," blandly overlooking the fact that by the time the average boy or girl under our care reached the voting age,

the election laws, ballots, and registration systems described in the books would be as obsolete as the electoral college which we had learned to scorn—such is the haste of legislature in this "progressive" age.

To those who, like the prodigal son, came to themselves, the paleolithic age seemed as unreal as the eolithic, and then we passed on to the new age, known as neolithic. We are entering upon this epoch just now. Signs of change are visible all about us. The neolithic civics will be historical, because it will show that government is an evolutionary process, not a static system unchanging as the hills—even the hills are drawn down to the sea. It will be constitutional, because it will expound the great political principles which lie at the basis of American government—*The Federalist* will be read again throughout the length and breadth of the land. It will be "actual," for it will show how the principles of government are worked out in concrete form in party practice and statutory details. But it will be more. It will treat the government as an instrument of public service and show how the government comes into contact with the lives of men and women at a thousand points. It will stress the economic functions of the government rather than its machinery. It will give more attention to a railway tariff sheet made out under the supervision of the interstate commerce commission than to tally sheets. It will devote more pages to public franchises than to ballot legislation. It will show what is being done in other states and other countries to make the government a more efficient and a nobler servant of democracy. It will give to women that place in civics to which their position in the economic and intellectual life of our age entitles them. It will teach that the character of the government and its work will depend more upon what the people want the government to be and do, than upon any changes in the structure of the machinery of government. It will seek above all to interest students in the government and its work, and trust that they will find their way to the polling booths on election day. In short, the rights and duties of citizens, and the functions of government will occupy the first place in the neolithic civics, and political machinery will be reduced to about one-third its former domain.

College and university instruction, in my mind, should be organized with reference to three great purposes: the preparation of students for citizenship, the training of teachers, and the training of men and women for public service. In carrying out the first of these purposes, the teacher helps the student to acquire information concerning the principles and practices of American and foreign governments. He encourages habits of systematic study and investigation before the formation of dogmatic judgments. He seeks to instill those high qualities of fairness, sympathy, and understanding which come from the study of the programs and principles of all parties, and he will denounce in season and out that vicious presupposition of politics that those who oppose us are *ipso facto* intellectually dishonest. He shows that mere sophistication is not education and he points out that some of the worst men in American political life are college men. He will temper the arrogance of politics by some of that humility and meekness which may inherit the earth in spite of the wrath of man.

The second purpose of college and university instruction in politics—the training of civics teachers—is now sadly neglected. History has seized upon the richest domains of higher instruction and contests its possession inch by inch. Only a few universities in the United States give courses in civics for teachers, and yet the teachers of this subject hold sovereignty in the hollow of their hands. Thousands of women go out of our colleges and normal schools every year to teach boys and girls the elementary lessons of citizenship, and yet a very small percentage of them have any training in the subject-matter of civics or in methods of presentation. This, too, is a sad commentary on the way in which many organizers of higher education view the relations of instruction to democracy. It is true, as some one has remarked here, that to train these women teachers in civics would make them want to vote. It would be unbecoming in me to raise a controversial question at this meeting, but I should like to put this query: Whether anybody who does not have enough interest in the government to want to vote, ought to be instructing the coming generations of citizens in any subject?

There is finally the third purpose of college and university instruction, namely, the training of men and women for public ser-

vice. For generations our law schools have been training skilled counsellors whose chief business has been to render the government impotent by securing the annulment of statutes by judicial decrees. The legal profession in this country has for its most remunerative function the exaltation of individuals and corporations at the expense of the public. With that function I do not here quarrel; but I do wish to point out that higher educational institutions owe a more important duty to the state which exempts them from taxation or supports them by public taxation; namely, the training of men and women to serve the state, not only in a political capacity, but also as expert administrators capable of raising the standards in those functions which the economic conditions of our time demand—imperatively demand. There are plenty of signs that the public is weary of having delicate governmental functions connected vitally with public welfare entrusted to political hacks who have "rounded up the boys" at elections. If I had time, I could produce indubitable evidence of a radical change in this regard within the last ten years. The success of the Training School for Public Service in New York is a promise for the future, and the time will come when universities will look upon the training of experts in every branch of public service—administrative and scientific, as its crowning function. There are signs of change in the university world, and there is no better hope in American life than the union of higher education and public service.

DISCUSSION

Miss Jessie C. Evans, William Penn High School, Philadelphia: The last time I had the honor of an invitation to speak before this Association, the subject was "How to Make History Teaching Definite." When we had all finished and done our best, the chairman of the program committee rose and said that the whole discussion had been *indefinite* and we had arrived nowhere. With that experience in my mind I have made and brought with me what I might call a "civics platform."* Most of the points in it have been derived from the abstracts furnished me for the speeches of the day. This I offer for adoption by this meeting as a definite expression of our opinion.

* See page 73.

I know that I was asked to speak here because of the character of the work I am doing, so I shall tell without delay how we have attempted to carry out these principles. We have not yet found it practicable to introduce Community Civics in the first year, as is recommended in the report of the Committee on Social Studies, because no other department is willing to give up any time. So we are obliged to do the whole thing in the time devoted to Senior Civics, but of course in a more advanced way. We give the first and by far the largest portion of our time to local government. This apportionment is especially desirable in Philadelphia because the lower schools are unfortunately still devoting all their time to the national government. Approaching the subject always from the functions of government, we take up such topics as health, charities, highways and transportation, education and correction. Under "health" the various kinds of health protection are discussed: sanitation, housing, pure food, water and milk, sewerage, waste disposal, quarantine, the baby-saving campaigns, etc. The duties and officers of the City Bureau and Board of Health come next, then the co-operation of the State Health Department with the state law behind it, and finally the help afforded by the Federal bureaus and inspectors. A great saving of energy has recently been effected in Philadelphia by organized co-operation between city, state and Federal food inspectors.

In this manner each division of municipal activities is approached and completed until there is built up in the pupils' minds the conception of the city government as a whole and the interdependence of local, state and Federal government. No one has to learn meaningless lists of officials with their duties, as in the old days of "civil government." The duties come first and are interesting because they touch you and me. The officers follow as a matter of course. Comparison is frequently made with other cities and states, i. e., commission governments are compared with Philadelphia's antiquated and clumsy system.

After the municipal civics comes a much briefer study of the government of Pennsylvania from the point of view of what it does for the people. It can be briefer because much of the material has already been made familiar in showing the co-operation of the state with the city. We show the state as the agent of social legislation and regulation. Community interests, not individual interests, are now the aim of government action. Individual interests are usually the same after all. An investigation at the University of Pennsylvania some years ago showed that the amount paid by well-to-do citizens of Philadelphia for bottled spring water if added to the taxes, would pay the interest on a loan for building an adequate filtration plant to benefit all classes. The *rights* of citizens occupy

too much space in many of our textbooks. What we want to inculcate now is the social *duties* of citizens. Our rights will be perfectly safe if we are all working to secure efficiency in the promotion of social welfare.

The nation is given more time than the state, but less than the municipality. In the first place the students know more about the national government, at least in Philadelphia schools, and in the second place it is of much less immediate importance to them. The only way in which the national government touches their lives is through the postman and indirectly the Federal food inspector. While every moment of the day is made safe and happy, or the reverse, by the policeman, street cleaner, lamp lighter, fireman, and garbage collector.

You are ready to object, I know, that this work is very hard for the teacher. We find it one grand hunt for information on the part of *both* pupil and teacher. It is astonishing how little is written on every day affairs and how complicated they are. There are three bureaus and one board in Philadelphia concerned in lighting the city and these are divided between three of the great departments. It was some months before we found out just the difference between the Bureau of Health and the Board of Health. Few people know any of these things except the men immediately in them. The attitude of the teacher toward the class is that of a fellow student. "What do you know about this?" she asks, or "What can you find out?" A girl whose father is a policeman makes a report on the Police Bureau; one who knows a doctor at the almshouse investigates that for the class; another says we have the wrong man named as chief of the Fire Bureau; she knows, for her father works under him. Fortunately we have a number of descriptive pamphlets issued by various city bureaus and private organizations, such as the Charity Organization Society and Housing Commission, which furnish material for students' work. The daily newspapers, too, are fruitful sources of information, and so are visits to municipal buildings. We find that the fact that they can help in the collection of information makes the work interesting to the students. In this manner we are gradually accumulating a mass of information and putting it in shape for our work.

The presentation of the state and national governments from the point of view of their functions presents another real difficulty. Most of the textbooks, practically all, are written the other way. They devote much space to the details of the operation of the Supreme Court and perhaps a single line to the immigrant stations, the Children's Bureau, or the forest service. This is very unfortunate, for the practical work of the government is not only more

important than the mere machinery, but is vastly more interesting to the students.

Of the resolutions which I have offered to you, numbers five and six have not been explained. I should like to devote a little time to them, as they seem to me extremely important in the training for citizenship. I believe that if our pupils are to be trained to citizenship they must not only be taught what their civic duties are, but how to begin to perform them. Civic associations should be formed in the school, organized to help directly in civic activities. There are many things which they can do; for instance, groups of grammar school children are now being organized in Philadelphia to act as volunteer street inspectors and report complaints to the Bureau of Highways and Street Cleaning. We have not yet found time to organize the high school girls because of the effort required in collecting material for the civics. I have, however, begun a club among our graduates to perpetuate the ideas gained in the civics classes and put them to practical use.

Clubs in our school which are not strictly civic tend to give training in social activity. The Social Workers Club visits orphan asylums, day nurseries and hospitals to cheer and help. The Students Aid Association encourages the freshmen, sends flowers to the sick and helps the unfortunate among our own girls. Under their direction the whole school helps to make Christmas presents for a thousand poor children.

The activities of these clubs are an indication of the spirit of the organization and discipline of the school. We try to make it such that it will develope in the pupils a sense of personal responsibility, initiative, a social conscience, and high ideals of conduct. This we think is the most important civic lesson. It is our belief that the child as well as the adult *is* a citizen, the girl as well as the boy. School, too, *is* life not merely preparation for life. What they do and think now they will do and think later. The firm belief of our Principal, Mr. W. D. Lewis, in these ideas has inspired us all to achievements which I had formerly thought impossible. We do not have what is popularly called student government, but there is a Students' Association which manages the school a little more each year. The girls form in line at the elevator and lunch counter without any directions, except from one of their own number, and now that it has become a habit monitors are not needed. No teacher is present in the students' lunch room, but it is in good order and is left clean, even the crumbs being gathered up. In the study hall, which seats four hundred, girls take the attendance and correct offenders. A junior the other day was observed detecting a senior in doing something wrong. She said, "Here, cut that out. You know you've no busi-

ness to do that," and the senior obeyed. The order in the study hall is nearly perfect—much better than it was under the teachers' rule. The girls have a pride in the matter. One of them said recently, "We save the teachers such a lot of work by taking care of ourselves." If I am delayed in reaching my class I expect to find a girl teaching in my place, and I am seldom disappointed. Young people trained to a feeling of responsibility of action will not lose that habit, we hope, when they are older. I believe that ten years of such management and instruction in all the high schools of Philadelphia would make forever impossible Lincoln Steffens' characterization of us as "corrupt and contented" and never could it be said, as at the last city election, that 40,000 failed to vote.

Do we get real results? Recently I asked all the senior civics classes, "What have you done to help the city since you began the study of civics?" One girl told how after her lesson on the water-saving campaign of the Water Bureau, she put three new washers on the faucets at home. Another visited around her neighborhood and told her friends to turn off the faucets. A third got a policeman to arrest some boys who had been troubling a poor old applewoman. All testified to their increased interest in the newspapers and in the things they see every day. Many are the echoes we receive from the family dinner table and I'm afraid in some cases the ignorance of their elders about municipal affairs is too sharply rebuked. If you want to arouse people to active citizenship catch them young. Boys and girls aren't half as self-conscious as we older people, and are usually willing to set things straight without regard to what others will think of them.

What is a good citizen? One who know the Constitution and looks up the issues before a presidential election? Or is it one who works all the time for better housing conditions, better schools, clean elections, who keeps the right kind of receptacle for his ashes and garbage, and removes the treacherous banana peel from the sidewalk? Citizenship like charity begins at home, and like true religion is not for Sunday and presidential elections alone, but for every day.

Edgar W. Ames, Head, Department of History, Troy High School, Troy, N. Y.: During the past few months the Empire State has been undergoing a severe operation. Skilled doctors have been removing an envenomed growth from the body politic, an operation not yet entirely finished. Whether the disease again becomes malignant depends somewhat upon the patient, and also upon the completeness of the operation. It is thought the patient will recover. Before the work of operating was begun a large drink of fusion cocktail, Hennessy, some ice and Sulzer, was ad-

ministered, which was of great help in arousing the patient to the seriousness of his condition. That the operation was a success is due to the teachers of the state and country—in their hands has been the training of the political doctors who performed this work. The schools and colleges have been training for citizenship, and the results testify to the thoroughness of the teaching.

I have been greatly interested in the remarks of the previous speakers concerning the attempts that are being made in the grades to teach civics, or to train for citizenship. When it is remembered that the majority of students leave school life before they reach the high school, and that a smaller number reach college, the necessity for training for citizenship in the grades is at once apparent. "A little leaven leaveneth the whole lump," but the "leaven" of the high schools and colleges is too small for the "lump" of all those whom we do not reach. The importance of such training in the grades is again made evident when it is noted that those who take the highest place in, and have the highest ideals of training for, civic righteousness are the high school and college-bred men, and that those who form the bulk of our invisible government and those who are opposed to anything except the old style of political life, are those who have left school before reaching the high school. One of the greatest weaknesses of our government lies in this great mass of people, who have not been taught what good government means. The remedy of such a condition lies in the hands of the superintendents and principals who have charge of the work in the grades.

Again, there is a monumental lack of knowledge on the part of all of us of our local laws. We expect the children to obey the law, for obedience to law is good citizenship, not only the written, but also the unwritten, that formulates our relations to each other. We are breaking the ordinances of our town or city every day, either through ignorance, or, worse still, through carelessness. If we break the law what may we expect from our pupils? Therefore localize the teaching of civil government. Show that all our actions are governed by their relations to others. Teach the law, the common everyday law of the street, so that it may be obeyed. Good citizenship does not mean simply to take a part in government by voting; it also means those seemingly evident things,—the observance of right actions toward our fellow-men, obedience to law, whether of the home, the street, the school, the city or the state. It should be made clear that the student who is a bad citizen of the school government, must have of necessity less regard for a wider application of law.

Third, inculcate a respect for government and its properly constituted officials. The boys and girls of to-day have none too much

respect for those in authority. The policeman, the "cop," represents a joke, a man who sleeps on his post, a grafter, a fat man who cannot run fast enough to catch the evil-doing small boy. He represents anything except law and order. Government represents a place in which broken-down politicians and derelicts of all sorts may have an easy place at the public crib, rather than that supreme power to which we should gladly pay our allegiance.

Finally we have heard much here to-day about the training of the boy in good government, what about the girls? Whether we men like it or not, we must face the fact that women must soon be reckoned with in the East as they are now in the West, as a great factor in good government. I hold no brief for the "suffragettes," either militant or otherwise, but I am free to say that I thoroughly believe if the ladies want the ballot they'll get it. Such being the case, what is the condition which now confronts the teachers of civics and good government? For absolute ignorance of the fundamentals of civil government the average high school girl is in a class by herself. If your classes are as mine are, you find that girls do not like civics, formal or otherwise; they find it difficult to learn and raise all kinds of objections to it. Since this is an actual condition, it must be faced. We must make our girls and young women, the largest numerical part of our students, ready to take their position as good citizens of the world. Even if the ballot does not come to them, yet their effect on future good government must not be minimized. If the home holds women of high ideals of citizenship, the children of that home cannot help but have the same ideals. If the mother's idea of good citizenship is bridge whist and gossip in the afternoon, and the tango and gossip in the evening, the children neglected, the home uncared for, except by servants, we cannot expect the children to care much about being good citizens. The remedy for such conditions lies in the formative period of the girl's life. In the grades, in the high school, and in the college she should be taught the things that make her a good citizen. Citizenship should mean to her a home well kept, a family well cared for, friends well chosen, and when the time comes to cast the ballot, a working knowledge of formal civics.

To sum up—first, place the emphasis of training for citizenship in the grades that none may go out into the world ignorant of the fundamentals of good government; second, teach local civics and local laws carefully; third, teach by precept and by example the highest respect for law and order, and for those in properly constituted authority; fourth, teach the girls and young women that modest behavior and dress mean more to good government than holding office, and helpfulness in their community means even more than the ballot.

ARTHUR W. DUNN: The problem of effective civil education is co-extensive with the problem of effective education. The movement in the direction of a better adjustment of the public school to the needs of the community, and of the child as a member of the community, is rapidly gaining momentum. The emphasis given to vocational education and to the physical well-being of the child may be cited in illustration. But a frank recognition of the fact that effective civic training can only be attained by a careful readjustment of the entire work of the school does not eliminate the necessity for specific instruction in civics. On the contrary, it necessitates the inclusion of such instruction. The important thing is that the subject-matter and the methods of instruction in civics must undergo the same kind of adaptation to the needs of the community that we would apply to all educational work.

One of the greatest needs at present is for accepted standards by which to test and correct our work of training for citizenship. Such standards must bear direct relations to the ends or purposes of instruction. The aim of civic education is, of course, good citizenship, and good citizenship consists in the possession or exercise of certain qualities.

One qualification of the good citizen is, of course, to be well-informed. Training for citizenship, therefore, includes the imparting of information. The vital question, however, that faces the civics teacher is, what and how much information to give. This varies with the age and capacity of the child, and depends also upon the other purposes of civic training, some of which will be mentioned later. But there is one important principle to be observed:

The amount and kind of information to be imparted depend, not upon its usefulness in later years, but upon its usefulness to the child now; that is, the degree to which the child can make it a part of his present life and thought.

A much more essential quality of good citizenship is *interest.* Interest is the *motive power.* Knowledge without interest is dead, while interest will lead to knowledge. Bad citizenship is not so much due to ignorance as to lack of interest. Ignorance of civic matters is more often a result than a cause of bad citizenship.

Instruction in good citizenship is good, therefore, in proportion as it appeals and cultivates interest or motive. But what do we mean by "interest"? Certainly not mere entertainment. There exists a little textbook on civics in which the attempt is made to appeal to the "interest" of the children by the use of a kind of cheap humor! There are just a few fundamental interests common to all mankind: physical—health—life; economic; intellectual; æsthetic; social-companionship, leadership, rivalry, etc.; religious.

These vary with different individuals and with different ages, and are found in all sorts of combinations. But they are the sources of every human action, of all community or social arrangements, and of all government. The play of children springs (more or less consciously) from the physical interest (joy of being alive and well), the social interest (pleasure of companionship, competition, etc.), the æsthetic interest (rhythm) and the intellectual interest (curiosity, etc.). As children grow older some of these interests grow stronger, and others appear (economic, religious).

The purpose of all education is to cultivate these interests, *and the purpose of civic education is to cultivate them in their relations to community life,* including the relations of government. The kind and amount of civic information given to the child depend upon his present interests, or the interests which it is desired to cultivate. Another important principle, therefore, is:

The present interest of the child must be kept in mind, and not his probable or possible interest of ten years hence.

Therefore it is that the subject matter of civics instruction in the elementary schools must consist of the familiar things within the experience of the child, or capable of being made a part of his actual experience.

Other qualities of good citizenship are a spirit of co-operation, a sense of personal responsibility, good judgment, ability to see things in their proper relations, power of initiative, obedience to community law, habits of thinking of things in their civic relations, and of acting in accordance with those relations. Instruction in civics is good in proportion as it tends to develop, through subject-matter and method, these and other essential qualities of good citizenship. An illustration may be helpful.

A Lesson from the Snow

One morning after a heavy fall of snow the question was raised in the civics classes of a certain community: What is the effect of a heavy snowfall on the life of the community? It was soon developed that it interfered with traffic and with communication; that, if it was allowed to melt and freeze, it became dangerous to life and limb; and that when it lay in dirty heaps it marred the beauty of the community. The snowfall was thus seen in various community relations that had previously been discussed in other aspects.

Who cleaned the snow from the roadways? This was done for the citizens by the street cleaning department of the city government. Who cleaned the sidewalks? This was not done by the government, but was left in the hands of the individual householders. The children were asked to observe, on their way home, how

many of the walks were cleaned, and reported next day that very many were still uncleaned. Were the citizens left to their own discretion in this matter? No, for a city ordinance commanded them to clean their walks. The important parts of the ordinance were looked up and placed on the blackboard. Why was the ordinance not obeyed? Why was it not enforced? What is the effect of having a law that is not regarded? Great emphasis was placed on the danger of creating a disrespect for law by allowing it to be habitually disregarded, and also upon the difficulty of enforcing law without the full co-operation of the citizen.

Meanwhile the children were talking about these things at home, and were even encouraged to do so, and also to interest their friends in the subject. The suggestion was made of neighborhood clubs in the interest of clean walks. Through the school authorities the newspapers were interested, and the co-operation of civic organizations and of the municipal authorities was sought.

This lesson in civics was not lacking in its fund of information regarding fundamental community relations and the governmental arrangements for dealing with those relations. But it was especially strong in its organization of that information for immediate use; in its appeal to interest; in its cultivation of a sense of personal responsibility; in its stimulation of initiative; and in its development of real co-operation.

One of the most important results of this lesson was, according to reports from principals, a great improvement in the condition of the sidewalks thereafter. The children participated in bringing about this result, though the actual work of cleaning off the snow was done largely by the householders themselves, the children doing little more than what naturally fell to their lot as individual members of households. The children *co-operated* in an effective way, but they were not made to assume an undue responsibility for the failure of the community to meet the existing situation.

Only the other day, a superintendent of schools wrote deprecating the publicity that young children are receiving, and alleging that it is becoming common to thrust upon the shoulders of children responsibilities that do not belong there. This may have been an exaggeration, but there is some justification for the remark. We need standards by which to judge the effectiveness and wisdom of children's participation in actual community functions. In the case cited, the lesson was valuable, not because the children shoveled snow. There is nothing intrinsic in snow-shoveling that makes better citizens. Besides, it is not the children's business to keep the community's walks or streets clean, except as it may be a part of the individual boy's household duties to clean the walk in front of his home, as it might be his task to care for the furnace. The real

value of this incident lay in its organization for educational purposes. Aside from the lesson in motive, co-operation, initiative, the children learned that even in the performance of household tasks they might serve the community in an important way. They were not given an undue sense of their own importance, but they participated, by means of this school exercise, in a general awakening of the entire community to a sense of its responsibility for the welfare of all.

Participation by children in community activities should be encouraged as a means of civic training, but it must be wisely organized and guided, and its educational purpose kept pre-eminent.

GEORGE D. LUETSCHER, Jamaica High School, New York: I heartily agree with the speakers who have emphasized the fact that in order to train our young people for good citizenship our instruction must aim: (1) to place a student in an understanding relationship with his environment; and (2) to create in him a desire to live up to his understanding. And it appears from the pessimistic tone which has colored the remarks of several speakers that the second aim is the more difficult of realization. It seems to me, however, that this problem may be partially solved by placing the emphasis, as Miss Evans suggests, upon the duties of citizenship rather than upon the rights of citizenship, and by giving the students an opportunity to engage in civic activities in the school and in the community. In other words, a child must be led to realize that he is a citizen and as such has public duties to perform before he reaches maturity. This point of view should be emphasized especially in the elementary grades and in the first year of the high school. But our instruction in the fourth year of our high schools where we deal with students whose minds are sufficiently matured to grasp more far-reaching problems of citizenship must result in more than a mere understanding of a student's immediate environment.

In the first place, a student must be made to realize that society is dynamic, not static, and that institutions must adapt themselves to changes in environment. Unless we teach our students the dynamic character of society and the necessity of keeping up with institutional changes, they will be hopelessly out of date in a short time. Unless we do this, we will continue to have with us that class of citizens who cling without reason to the institutions of our fathers and who view necessary adaptations as a sign that the times are out of joint.

A vivid interest in the changing character of our institutions may be created in the students by directing them to ascertain the changes which have taken place within the past two or three de-

cades within their own community, where they will be able to gain their information by consulting the residents of their locality. A student living in a town or village may learn from those who have passed middle age that ten, twenty, or thirty years ago, the voters went to one place for the election of town officers and that at 12 o'clock many of them assembled as a body for deliberative purposes, viz., to propose, discuss, and vote upon measures which the town meeting was authorized to act upon. Save in a very few of our towns, he will learn from the same source that the voters no longer meet at one place for the election of town officers, but instead cast their ballots in the election districts as they do at any general election; in fact, the answer to most inquiries will be that the election of town officers is a part of the general Fall elections and that under all of these circumstances, a deliberative town meeting is impossible. By this simple process of inquiry, he will have learned something which very few writers on New York civics know, for the most recent editions of some of these texts are still making a desperate effort to make you believe that the deliberate town meeting is still in a flourishing condition in New York State.

Far more vital changes may be noted in communities which have changed from rural to urban conditions, and in many cases students may ascertain the character of these changes in the same direct manner. For instance, the students of Jamaica High School occupy a building which is the product of direct citizen activity of a village and town community. Many of the students may learn from their parents how the erection of this building interested every intelligent citizen, how men and women met at the town hall to discuss and vote upon a public welfare issue which affected them directly. Since that time this community has become a part of Greater New York City. School buildings now erected are not the result of direct citizen activity and excite no general community interest. Such simple concrete illustrations force upon the students the important question: How may we keep citizens in our large cities from losing interest in their local government?

In the second place students of high schools should be made to realize that in different communities where similar conditions prevail citizens very often express themselves in different ways, that there is a difference of opinion as to what constitutes the best method of community action. Six copies each of a half a dozen well selected books and several weekly magazines will enable a class of fifty students to gather information, on the same or closely related subjects, which will form the basis of lively and intelligent class discussions. And there will be time for many such discussions on up-to-date problems in case we do not fritter away valu-

able time on mere formal recitations on the material contained in the textbook, a detailed knowledge of which may be tested by a formal examination.

A method of instruction which emphasizes the dynamic character of our institutions, or the successive adaptations of our institutions to changes in environment expressed in such headings as The Decline of the Town Meeting, and The Growth in the Powers of the Town Board,—leaves an indelible impression in the student's mind. A student cannot compare the experiments in the different forms of municipal government with emphasis upon their distinctive merits and defects without having acquired a method of approach to any problem of citizenship which he may have to face in the future. Such instruction does not permit him to memorize the forms of government; he must think about them; and what is of far greater importance, it will create such a vivid interest that he will want to think about them.

A. W. Risley, New York State Normal College, Albany: If this discussion planned an extra period for the already overburdened secondary curriculum, it would hardly merit continued discussion; but there has not been a whisper of such addition.

There have been meetings of this sort in this state many times in the past, differing from this one only in that this seems to possess unusual merit and enthusiasm. But, with all the enthusiasm, comes the old-time question—what are you going to do about it? Heretofore we have been satisfied with formalism, or with the wise statement that "the boy is the citizen of to-morrow"; we have even appointed learned committees to make out a new syllabus. With what result to the State? Who besides us is interested in this meeting to-day in this city of legislators? How much better is the New York State of 1913 than that of 1890? Justice is pictured as blind. Surely the public conscience needs no bandage over her eyes. She has had a periodic rousing, but never a real awakening.

Is there any way to make our teaching effective, so that 1923 may be better than 1913? It is noticeable that the mob spirit is called in whenever any public movement is set going with a push to it. At present we are met on every hand with the sign "Safety First"; it has become so insistent that we half begin to believe that something can be done by concerted action. I suggest the same power for this movement. Adopt the slogan "Citizenship First." Use the force of a repeated slogan. Stir up emotion on the subject. Make it a fad. Raise it to the dignity of a crusade. Advertise it. Who says that the schools teach it now? If they do, the teachers do not know it, the pupils do not know it; it is so care-

fully hidden in a mass that no one knows. Make it evident that the schools are centres of democracy, preparing for citizenship. Emblazon the slogan "Citizenship First" in electric lights on the front of every school building in the city. Make it show at night that all may become as enthusiastic as we are to-day.

Who shall teach it? Certainly the secondary school. Only yesterday Superintendent Maxwell extolled the power of English as an ideal. Make citizenship the ideal. How shall it be done? By teaching the practical, the actual. Present things as they are. Forget the memorizing of the preamble to the Declaration of Independence, to the Constitution, of even the tenth amendment: study conditions as they are in the city. In Denver I found it impossible to teach the ordinances against gambling and wine rooms to boys in the class, who knew that such practices existed. So I had an interview with the Mayor, who was frank enough to confess that he was a "business" mayor, not a reform mayor, and that he intended to let such practices continue, under restriction. That was bold enough to make it certain that while respect for lawmakers and law enforcers might not be taught, it was still possible to teach respect for law. It appeared that even then it did no harm to allow the embryo citizen see things as they were, to the end that he might do some thinking on his own account. Accurate diagnosis is the safest guide to remedy. To fight an enemy, you must first locate him.

Who shall teach citizenship? Surely the college. Here also must be the continuance of things as they are, in spite of the fact that Dr. Beard dubs this the Paleolithic stage. It is antecedent to the Neolithic, or evolutionary. This subject is the most effective corrective to the current mis-statement that college students do not read the news of the day. Use as a textbook some metropolitan newspaper, make index clippings illustrative of conditions. The college should train political leaders. If it becomes pessimistic, despairs of or despises its task, it is the only part of political machinery that ever distrusted its own power. Politics as a calling should be a possibility with us from the college point of view, as in England, and as diplomacy is in our own country.

More than it has done, the college should emphasize the good side of men, should handle godliness as well as graft. Not only a Boss Tweed, but the work of a Gaynor, a Hughes and a Whitman, are proper subjects. Teach so that the student is aglow with the victory of virtue, and not aghast at the variations of vice. It is time to educate more righteous leaders. That is the true function of the college working for citizenship first. Beware of the danger of sending out with a diploma the educated trickster. Educate the fearless type, confident in the final result. A short time

ago, Mr. Whitman said in this city that there were two places where he felt at home, under the roof of a Presbyterian Church and in the walls of a court room. God help the nation whose system of education despairs and breeds the type of public man who is lost in a church.

William A. Wetzel, Principal of Trenton High School: A teacher of civics must emphasize the ethical side of the subject. Most textbooks in civics are books of exposition only. These books do not go far enough. A course in civics must be wider than the field of governmental activities. It must treat of the citizen's conduct in public life.

Whatever else the civics teacher accomplishes, he should do the following:

1. Develop an abiding interest in the subject. This is more important than imparting information. The use of newspapers, cartoons, patriotic songs, memory selections, sample ballots, etc., will be helpful.

2. "Indoctrinate the learner in sound cautions of political morality." Having in mind the formation of the right kind of ideals and rules of conduct, the teacher should constantly sum up his work in short statements like the following:

(a) Man is a social animal.
(b) The family is the bed-rock of human society.
(c) Obedience to law is liberty, etc.

The goal is citizenship, not office holding. Hence topics like the following: The citizen and education, the citizen and finance, the citizen and crime, etc.

3. Inculcate the spirit of service. Give the pupils the taste of the joy of service by assigning to them some public duties to perform. If the community needs playgrounds, let the members of the civics class promote the project. If street signs should be erected in the community or letter boxes painted, let the members of the civics class bring it about. This will accomplish more than the formal inspection of various activities of government, as for example, the police court.

RESOLUTIONS OFFERED BY MISS EVANS AND ADOPTED BY THE ASSOCIATION

Elementary and Secondary Schools

1. The order of teaching should be from the functions to the machinery of government, with special emphasis on function rather than machinery.

2. The work should be based on the pupils' experience and immediate surroundings.

3. There should be a continual connection of civics with current events, and the student should be made to form the habit of keeping up with the news.

4. The keynote of the course should be the obligation of the citizen to serve the community.

5. Means should be found for the actual participation of the students in civic activities. This means more than the usual visits to courts and public buildings. They should *do* something to help, either as individuals or through civic associations.

6. Civic training should be secured through the organization and discipline of the school. If the organization is such as to develop in the pupils personal responsibility, initiative, a social conscience, and high ideals of conduct, the best civic lesson has been learned.

7. Civics should be given a place of its own separate from history.

8. This Association should take steps to secure separate examinations for United States History and Civics. Examination questions in civics should call for something besides a knowledge of the machinery of government.

College

9. Actual research in political science should be undertaken.

10. The work should include studies in comparative politics.

11. History and economics should be co-ordinated with politics.

12. Participation in public activities should be more extended and on a higher plane. "Students should join a party and work with it, join a civic association of some kind, keep in touch with live intellectual interests."

On the motion of Professor Risley of the Albany Normal College, was added:

13. Citizenship *first!*

CONSTITUTION

Article I. Name and Purpose

This Association shall be known as the "Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland." Its purpose shall be two-fold: first, to advance the study and teaching of history and government through discussion and publication and, secondly, to promote personal acquaintance among teachers and students of history.

Article II. Membership

Any one interested in the study or teaching of history in the Middle States and Maryland shall be eligible to membership. Application for membership shall be accepted or rejected by a vote of the Council at its meeting next following the receipt of such application.

Article III. Officers

The officers shall be a president, a vice-president, a secretary (who shall also act as treasurer), and a council, consisting of the foregoing officers, two members elected by the Association, the ex-presidents of the Association, and one delegate from each local conference recognized by the Association. These officers, except the delegates and ex-presidents, shall be elected by ballot at each regular Spring meeting of the Association. In the Council shall be vested the general direction of the affairs of the Association.

Article IV. Meetings

The annual meetings of the Association shall be held at the time and place annually designated by the Council.

Article V. Annual Dues

The membership fee shall be $1.00, payable at the time of the annual meeting.

Article VI. Amendments

This Constitution may be amended at any regular meeting by a two-thirds vote of those present, notice of the proposed amendment having been given at the call for the meeting.

LIST OF MEMBERS

Abbe, Mrs. Robert,	City History Club,	New York City.
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